A

GRAMMATICAL INSTITUTE

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE;

COMPRISING AN EASY, CONCISE AND SYSTEMATIC

METHOD of EDUCATION.

Deſigned for the Uſe of ENGLISH SCHOOLS in AMERICA.

IN THREE PARTS.

PART SECOND.

CONTAINING A PLAIN AND COMPREHENSIVE

GRAMMAR,

Grounded on the true Principles and IDIOMS of the Language.

BY NOAH WEBSTER, JUN. ESQUIRE.

AUTHOR of "DISSERTATIONS on the ENGLISH LANGUAGE," "COLLECTION of ESSAYS and FUGITIVE WRITINGS," &c.

Thomas and *Andrews'* THIRD EDITION.

With many CORRECTIONS and IMPROVEMENTS, by the AUTHOR.

PRINTED AT *BOSTON*,
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FAUST's STATUE, No. 45, NEWBURY STREET,
Sold, Wholeſale and Retail, at their Bookſtore; by ſaid THOMAS at his Bookſtore in *Worceſter*, and by the Bookſellers in Town and Country.
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Advertiſement.

AS this work is deſigned for general uſe, the moſt neceſſary rules and definitions are given in the text, by way of Queſtion and Anſwer. Theſe are all that a learner need burden his memory with, till he has made ſome proficiency in Grammar. The NOTES and APPENDIX will be uſeful for thoſe who wiſh to become more accurately acquainted with the principles and idioms of the language.

* * *

DISTRICT of MASSACHUSETTS, *to wit.*

BE it remembered, That on the Seventh day of October, in the Fifteenth year of the Independence of the United States of America, ISAIAH T[illegible]MAS and EBENEZER T. ANDREWS, of ſaid diſtric[illegible]e d[illegible]ted in this Office, the title of a Book, the right wher[illegible], in *Rhodeiſland*, *Maſſachuſetts*, and *Newhampſhire*, they claim as Proprietors, in three parts, in the words following, *to wit.* "The AMERICAN SPELLING BOOK, containing an Eaſy Standard of Pronunciation, being the Firſt Part of a Grammatical Inſtitute of the Engliſh Language." And Part the Second, containing, "A plain and comprehenſive GRAMMAR, grounded on the true principles and idioms of the Language." And Part the Third, containing, "An AMERICAN SELECTION of LESSONS in READING and SPEAKING, calculated to improve the minds and refine the taſte of Youth." "By NOAH WEBSTER, jun. Eſquire, Author of Diſſertations on the Engliſh Language." In conformity to the Act of Congreſs of the United States, entitled, "An Act for the encouragement of learning, by ſecuring the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the Authors and Proprietors of ſuch copies, during the times therein mentioned."

N. GOODALE, *Clerk of the Diſtrict Court*
Boſton, Oct. 7th, 1790. *of Maſſachuſetts Diſtrict.*

PREFACE.

THE deſign of this part of the INSTITUTE *is, to furniſh ſchools with a collection of rules, or general principles of Engliſh Grammar. Within a few years paſt, many excellent treatiſes upon this ſubject have appeared in Great Britain, each of which has ſome particular merit, and perhaps each may be liable to ſome exception.*

It is the buſineſs of grammar to inform the ſtudent, not how a language might have been originally conſtructed, but how it is conſtructed. *Grammarians are too apt to condemn particular phraſes in a language, becauſe they happen not to coincide ſtrictly with certain principles: But we ſhould reflect, that languages are not framed by philoſophers. On the contrary, they are ſpoken long before they are written; and ſpoken by barbarous nations, for many ages before any improvements are made in ſcience. Hence anomalous phraſes creep into a language in its infancy; and become eſtabliſhed idioms, in its moſt refined ſtate. On this principle we admit theſe expreſſions,* a few weeks, a great many men, you are, *applied to [illegible]ividual;* this news is favourable, *and many other expreſſions in our language. On the ſame principle, neuter plural nouns, in the Greek tongue, were joined to verbs in the ſingular number. This is my reaſon for admitting ſome phraſes as good Engliſh, which the moſt reſpectable writers on this ſubject have condemned as ungrammatical.*

With reſpect to ſome points, I acknowledge I have changed my opinion, ſince the publication of the firſt edition. This change has been produced by a more laborious and critical inveſtigation of the language, particularly in ancient authors; by comparing our tranſlation of the New Teſtament with the original; and by conſulting the beſt Engliſh writers of the laſt and preſent century.

The language ſeems not yet to be aſcertained. When a Lowth, an Aſh, and a Prieſtley differ from each other in opinion, the curious inquirer has no reſource, but to look for ſatisfaction in the ſtate of the language itſelf, as it has been exhibited in the beſt writers, and in general practice. This has been my endeavour, and I have been obliged to differ, in ſome reſpects, from the moſt approved *grammarians. The reaſons and authorities on which my opinions are founded, are too numerous to be inſerted in this abridgement; moſt of them are to be found in my "Diſſertations on the Engliſh Language."*

I have been ſo often led into miſtakes by the opinions of men, eminent for their literary abilities, that I am ſcrupulous of embracing any theory, till I have made it a ſubject of critical examination. I adopt the opinion of Monteſquieu—'that nothing retards the progreſs of the ſciences more, than a bad performance of a celebrated author.'—And I am ſatisfied that the beſt of our tranſ-atlantic Engliſh grammars, are inaccurate or defective.*

Our verbs and auxiliaries, the moſt difficult article in the ſtudy of our language, are here arranged in a manner entirely new. The Latin diviſion of tenſes, which is commonly followed, appears to me very arbitrary in our language, and rather calculated to miſlead the learner, than to give him clear ideas of our verbs. My diviſion is alſo arbitrary, but I muſt think it more eligible than any that has come to my knowledge. It has been found by experiment, that the language cannot be parſed on the principles of any Engliſh grammar that has hitherto appeared in America; and ſhould this be true hereafter, I ſhall neither be ſurpriſed nor mortified. I can only ſay, that I have attempted to ſimplify a very complex ſubject, and ſhall always feel indebted to the man who ſhall ſuggeſt any improvements.

HARTFORD, *Auguſt* 28, 1790.

"Rien ne recule plus le progres des connoiſſances, qu' un mauvais ouvrage d'un auteur celebre:" And he aſſigns the reaſon "parcequ' avant d'inſtruire, il faut detromper."

A PLAIN AND COMPREHENSIVE

GRAMMAR.

Of GRAMMAR.

WHAT *is Grammar?*

Grammar is the art of communicating thoughts by words ith propriety and diſpatch.

What is the uſe of English Grammar?

To teach the true principles and idioms[*] of the Engliſh Language.

How may language be divided?

Into the *written* and *ſpoken* language.

Explain the difference.

The *written* language is preſented to the eye, as in books, nd conſiſts of certain letters or combinations of viſible marks, hich, by cuſtom, ſtand for ideas or notions. The *ſpoken* lanuage is addreſſed to the ear, and conſiſt of certain ſounds, ither ſimple or combined, which, by cuſtom, convey ideas or otions. †

In what order does the formation of ſentences proceed?

Letters are the elements or component parts of language—eſe form ſyllables—ſyllables form words—and words form ntences.‡

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[*] Modes of ſpeaking peculiar to the language.

† The language of the paſſions and emotions is ~~not the~~ ſubject grammar.

‡ Letters and ſyllables are the ſubject of the firſt part of the ſtitute.

How may words be divided?

Into primitive and compound.

What is a primitive word?

A word that cannot be ſeparated into parts, each of whic ſhall retain any ſenſe; as, *man*, *hope*, *good*, *bleſs*.

What is a compound word?

A primitive word with the addition of a ſyllable or ſyllables; as, *man-ly*, *hope-leſs*, *goodneſs*, *bleſſing*.*

What is the rule for ſpelling compound words?

In general, the primitive muſt be kept entire; as, *turn-ed*, *book-iſh*. But to this rule there are ſome exceptions.

When the primitive ends with a vowel, and the word adde begins with a vowel, the vowel of the primitive is dropped as, *fame*, *famous*; *dance*, *dancing*. But *e* muſt not be droppe after *c* and *g*, before *able*; as, *ſerviceable*.

Before a conſonant, *e* is not dropped; as, *name*, *nameleſs*.

2. When the primitive ends in *y*, this letter is changed int *i* in the derivative; as, *holy*, *holineſs*. Except before *i*, as, *den* *denying*.

3. When an accented conſonant ends a primitive, the conſo nant is uſually doubled in the derivative, as, *pen*, *pen-ned*.

Into how many claſſes may words be diſtributed?

Six: Nouns, Articles, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Ab breviations or Particles.§

Noun

---

* I conſider *all particles* and terminations as words; for it certain that moſt of them were originally words, and ſignifica This theory deſtroys the difference between derivatives and co pound words.

† This rule is arbitrary; if *e* is a mark of the prolonged ſoun of a foregoing vowel in *namely*, it ſhould be retained for the ſa purpoſe in *famous*.

‡ This practice is very needleſs; *pen-ned* and *pen-ed* bei pronounced alike.

§ This diſtribution of words is new, and requires illuſtratio but this abridgement is not the place to treat the ſubject at la will obſerve in general, that the words which are denomina *adverbs*

Noun.

Explain the Noun.

A noun is the name of any thing that exiſts, or that conveys idea, without the help of any other word; as, *pen*, *paper*, wer, *faith*.*

What is the uſual diviſion of nouns.

Into *proper* and *common*.

What is the difference?

A *proper* noun is the name of a thing, when there it but e; as, *Philadelphia*, *Miſſiſippi*. A *common* noun is the name a ſort or ſpecies of things; as, *man*, *book*.

In what manner do the Engliſh aſcertain individuals *with* mmon *names?*

By the uſe of two little words *a* and *the*, called *articles*.

Explain the uſe of each.

The article *a*, which, before a vowel, becomes *an*,† is plac- before a noun to confine its ſignification to an individual ng; but it does not ſhow which of the kind is meant; as, *a* ok,‡ *A* is called the *indefinite* article.

The

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erbs, *conjunctions*, and *prepoſitions*, are formed the laſt in the greſs of language. They are articles of refinement, rather n of neceſſity. By recurring to the Saxon and Gothic origi- moſt of the Engliſh particles are found to be abbreviations combinations of nouns, verbs or adjectives. Indeed moſt ctives are formed in the ſame manner from nouns and verbs. Horne's Diverſions of Purley.

Children very early in life underſtand the names of viſible cts; as pen, paper—but they make much ſlower progreſs in eviations which ſtand for combinations of ideas, and in ideas material ſubſtances. A boy may have a clearer idea of *pa-* at four years of age, than of *thought* or *faith* at fifteen. This s that children ſhould be taught ſciences as much as poſſible, ible objects.

We write *a* before all conſonants—before *y*, *w*, and *u*, pro- ced *yu*; as, *a year*, *a week*, *a union*. It ſhould alſo be written e *h* pronounced, as *a hundred*; but *an* before *h* mute, as *an*

The article *a* is uſed before plural nouns, preceded by *few* ny; as, *a few men*; *a great many houſes*, and alſo before *hundred*, *thouſand*, *million*, as a *dozen eggs*.

The is uſed, when we ſpeak of a thing, or number of things, which are ſpecified and known. It limits the ſignification of th noun to a particular, or to particulars ; as, *the* commander i chief ; *the* apoſtles.* *The* is called the *definite* article.

NUMBER.

How many numbers are there in grammar ?

Two ; the *ſingular* and the *plural.* The ſingular ſpeaks o one ; as, *a table* : The plural of more ; as, *tables.*

How is the plural of nouns formed ?

It is regularly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the ſingular ; a *tree, trees* ; *fox, foxes.*

When the ſingular ends in *ch, ſh, ſs,* or *x,* the plural is for ed by adding *es* ; as, *church, churches* ; *bruſh, bruſhes* ; *gla glaſſes* ; *box, boxes.*

When the ſingular ends in *f,* or *fe,* the plural is ſometim formed by changing *f* into *v,* and adding *s* ; as, *life, lives* †

Nouns

pea

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* *The* is uſed before nouns in either number, and alſo be the words *more, moſt, leſs, leaſt, better, beſt,* in order to mar ſenſe with more preciſion. *Proper* names may become *common,* being applied to more individuals than one ; and then they mit the articles, and take the plural number ; as " a traitor is Arnold"—" Our general was *a Fabius*"—" *The* two Howes" " *The* Miſſes Smiths"—" *The* Smiths."

† The words of this claſs are the following :

life	lives	ſtaff	ſtaves
knife	knives	loaf	loaves
wife	wives	ſheaf	ſheaves
leaf	leaves	ſhelf	ſhelves
calf	calves	wolf	wolves
ſelf	ſelves	wharf	wharves
half	halves		

Irregular Plurals.

man	men	focus	foci
woman	women	radius	radii
brothers	brethern or brothers	index	indexes indices

Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a conſonant, form the plu-al by changing *y* into *ies*; as, *body*, *bodies*.

What is meant by caſe?

Either a difference of ending in a word to expreſs a different elation, or a different poſition of a word.

What caſes are there in Engliſh?

The *nominative*, which uſually ſtands before a verb; as, the *oy* writes: The *poſſeſſive*, which takes an *s* with a comma, and enotes property; as, *John's* hat: The *objective*, which follows

a verb

enny	pence	criterion	criteria
hild	children	phenomenon	phenomena
oth	teeth	theſis	theſes
x	oxen	emphaſis	emphaſes
ie	dice	antitheſis	antitheſes
ouſe	lice	hypotheſis	hypotheſes
ooſe	geeſe	ſeraph	ſeraphim
eau	beaux	cherub	cherubim

Summons is ſingular, and makes its plural regularly, *ſummonſes*.

There are ſome nouns which are uſed only in the plural num-er. Such are the following:

borigines
loes
mends
nnals
rchieves
ſhes
ſſets
bowels
des
nones

compaſſes
creſſes
embers
clothes
entrails
tidings
fetters
goods
lungs
pincers

ſnuffers
ſhears
thanks
mallows
filings
hatches
ſhambles
tongs
calends
veſpers

breeches
trowſers
matins
vitals
orgies
pleiades
belles-lettres
ſciſſars

Others have only a plural termination, but are joined to verbs either number, or in the ſingular only.

[illegible]
ellows
gallows
ds
means

pains
news
riches
wages
victuals

billiards
fives
hyſterics
meaſles
phyſics

ethics
mathematics
billet-doux
ſeſſions

The nouns *ſheep*, *deer*, *ſwine*, *hoſe*, are uſed in both numbers, ithout a plural termination. Many nouns, from the nature of e things which they expreſs, admit not the plural number. Such *wheat*, *rye*, *barley*, *flour*, *gold*, *cloth*, *pride*, &c.

a verb or prepoſition ; as, he honors *virtue*, or it is an h nor *to him*.*

GENDER.

How many genders are there?

Two ; *maſculine*, which comprehends all males ; and *fem* *nine*, which comprehends all *females*. †

How are the different genders expreſſed?

Sometimes by different words ; as, man, woman ; brothe ſiſter ; ſon, daughter ; uncle, aunt, &c. Sometimes by th words *male* and *female*, *man* and *maid*, prefixed to nouns ; as male child, a female orator ; a man ſervant, a maid-ſerva Sometimes by prefixing *he* and *ſhe* ; as, a *he*-goat, a *ſhe*-go

A few nouns have the feminine in *ix* ; *executor*, *executri* *Hero* makes *heroine*.

But the regular ending of the feminine gender, is *eſs* ; *act* *actreſs* ; *heir*, *heireſs*. ‡

PRONOUN.

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* When nouns end in *ſs* or *es*, the comma alone is added ; as *f* *goodneſs' ſake* ; *on eagles' wings*. This omiſſion is to prevent t diſagreeable hiſſing of the letter *s*.

Sometimes a number of words form a kind of complex nou and then the ſign of the poſſeſſive is added to the laſt word ; “the King of England's army”—“The King of Pergamus's tre ſure.” In theſe examples, the whole phraſe muſt be conſidered a ſingle noun ; for it is not ſimply a king's army or treaſure ; b the Engliſh or Pergamean king's. This mode of ſpeaking not eſteemed elegant ; but is well eſtabliſhed, and ſometim cannot be avoided.

† The Engliſh language knows no gender in the vegetab world. It leaves to philoſophy the ſexes of plants, and con ders all things without life as having no ſex. Sometimes ina mate ſubſtances are ſpoken of as male or female. We ſay of a ſhi “ ſhe is a faſt ſailing veſſel.” This perſonificaion is often ſtriki and ornamental.

‡ The following are moſt of the nouns, which have a diſti termination for the feminine.

Abbot	abbeſs	prophet	propheteſs
actor	actreſs	ſhepherd	ſhepherdeſs
adulterer	adultereſs	ſorcerer	ſorcereſs
ambaſſador	ambaſſadreſs	tutor	tutoreſs
baron	baroneſs	traitor	traitreſs

benefacto

Pronoun.

What is a Pronoun?

A ſmall word that ſtands for a noun—as, "This is a man f worth; treat *him* with reſpect." The pronoun *him* ſup-lies the place of *man*.

Which are called the Perſonal Pronouns?

I, thou, he, ſhe; we, ye or you, they. The perſon peaking calls himſelf *I*. 2d. The perſon ſpoken to is call-d *thou* or *you*. 3d. The perſon ſpoken of, is called, if a male, e—if a female, *ſhe*—when a thing is ſpoken of, it is called *it*. he plural of *I*, is *we*—the plural of *thou*, is *ye* or *you*—the lural of *he*, *ſhe*, or *it*, is *they*.

What difference is there in the uſe of ye *and* you?

Ye is uſed in the ſolemn ſtyle—*you* in common diſcourſe. *ou* is alſo uſed in familiar language, for *thou*, which is ſed principally in addreſſes to the Deity.*

How do theſe pronouns vary in the caſes?

Thus:

Singular.

enefactor	benefactreſs	ſongſter	ſongſtreſs
ount	counteſs	ſeamſter	ſeamſtreſs
eacon	deaconeſs	viſcount	viſcounteſs
uke	dutcheſs	jew	jeweſs
ector	electreſs	lion	lioneſs
nperor	empreſs	marquis	marchioneſs
overnor	governeſs	maſter	miſtreſs
eir	heireſs	patron	patroneſs
eer	peereſs	protector	protectreſs
rieſt	prieſteſs	executor	executrix
ince	princeſs	teſtator	teſtatrix
et	poeteſs	adminiſtrator	adminiſtratrix
ger	tygreſs		

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* One ſet of Chriſtians, the Friends, uſe *thou* and *ye* in their ginal ſenſe. Theſe however have run into great errors on their n principles. They often ſay, *thee does*, *thee has*, *thee gives*; hich are as erroneous as *him has*, *her gives*. It would be re correct, and the ſingularity more pleaſing, to ſay, *thou doſt*, *ou haſt*, *thou giveſt*.

	Singular.	
Nominative.	*Poſſeſſive.*	*Objective.*
I	mine	me
thou or you	thine or yours*	thee or you
he	his	him
ſhe	hers	her
it	its	it
	Plural.	
we	ours	us
ye or you	yours	you
they	theirs	them†

What other words are called pronouns?

My, thy, her, our, your, their, are called *pronominal adjectives*, becauſe they are joined with nouns. This, that, other, any, ſome, one, none, are called *definitive pronouns*, becauſe they limit the ſignification of the noun to which they refer.‡

Are any of theſe varied?

This, *that* and *other*, make, in the plural, *theſe*, *thoſe* and *others*.§

What other pronouns are there in Engliſh?

Who, *which* and *what*.‖ Theſe are called *relatives*, becauſe they relate to ſome foregoing noun: Except when they aſk queſtions; then they are called *interrogatives*. *What* has the ſenſe of *that which*; except in aſking queſtions.

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* The old Saxon *uren* is ſtill heard in New-England, *ourn*. *Ourn* and *yourn* are obſolete in books, but are not a corruption. *Ours* and *yours* are the moſt modern words.

† The reaſons why the firſt and ſecond perſons have no diſtinction of gender in language, is, that they are ſuppoſed to be preſent when we ſpeak, and their ſex known.

‡ *None* is compounded of *no one*, and yet we often uſe it as a plural.

§ *This* and *theſe* refer to things preſent—*that* and *thoſe*, to things abſent. *Others* is uſed only when the noun is omitted—We ſay all *others*; but *all other men*.

‖ *That and as* are alſo uſed as relatives.

Have the relatives any variations?

Who, is thus varied in the caſes—Nom. *who*—Poſſ. *whoſe*—Obj. *whom.**

What name is given to each, every, other?

That of *diſtributives*; becauſe they denote a number of particulars, taken ſeparately; as, "There are five boys, *each* of whom *is* able to read."

What is the uſe of own *and* ſelf?

They are added to pronouns, to expreſs an idea with force. *Self* makes *ſelves* in the plural.

ADJECTIVES.

What is an adjective?

A word which expreſſes ſome quality or circumſtance of a noun; as, a *wiſe* man, a *young* woman, *two* men.

Have adjectives any variations?

Adjectives, which expreſs qualities, capable of being encreaſed or diminiſhed, are varied to expreſs compariſon, thus: *Wiſe, wiſer, wiſeſt—cold, colder, coldeſt.*

What are the degrees of compariſon called?

The *poſitive*, *comparative* and *ſuperlative*. The *poſitive* expreſſes the ſimple quality as, *wiſe*, *cold*—the *comparative* expreſſes a quality in a greater or leſs degree; as, *wiſer*, *colder*, *leſs wiſe*. The *ſuperlative* expreſſes a quality in the greateſt or leaſt poſſible degree; as, *wiſeſt*, *coldeſt*, *leaſt wiſe*.

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* *Who* and *whom* are uſed only to expreſs perſons—*Which*, *whoſe* and *that*, refer to things and perſons. *Which*, refers not to erſons, except in aſking queſtions. Theſe relatives, *who*, *what*, &c. were formerly ſpelt, *quha*, *quhat*, &c. They ſeem to be formd, like the Latin *qui*, *quod*, from the Greek *kai-o*, *kai-oti*. So that our relatives are abbreviations, and ſignify, *and he—and that*, &c. Should it be objected that the origin of the Saxon or Gothic nguages is as remote as that of the Greek; I anſwer, this may e true; and yet both may be derived from the ſame common root. The relatives of the Engliſh, *who*, *which*, *what*; of the Latin, *qui*, *quæ*, *quod*; of the French, *qui*, &c. are evidently derived from e ſame ſtock; and from words equivalent to the Greek *kai-o*, *i-oti*. The French *quelles*, *who*, *which*, is from *que-elles*, *and y*.

Moſt adjectives may be compared by *more* and *moſt*, *leſ* and *leaſt* ; as, *more generous*, or *leſs generous*,* &c.

VERB.

What is a verb ?

A part of ſpeech, ſignifying *action* or *being*.

How many kinds of verbs are there ?

Two ; *tranſitive* and *intranſitive*.† A *tranſitive* verb denotes ſome action which paſſes from an agent to an object ; as, s, *John loves ſtudy.* Here the action of *loving* paſſes from *John*, the *agent*, to *ſtudy*, the *object.*

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* A ſmall degree of quality is expreſſed by *iſh*, as *whitiſh*, *rediſh*. A quality in a great degree, but not in the greateſt, is expreſſed by very, prefixed to the adjective ; as, *very* black.

Adjectives of irregular compariſon.

good—better—beſt
bad or evil—worſe—worſt
fore—former—firſt
little—leſs or leſſer—leaſt
many or much—more—moſt
near—nearer—neareſt or next
old—older—oldeſt or elder—eldeſt
late—later—lateſt or latter—laſt

Thoſe adjectives which expreſs ſimple qualities, or qualities inherent in bodies, ſeem to claim a place among the original parts o ſpeech ; as *hard*, *ſoft*, *white*, &c. But adjectives which convey abſtract, complex ideas, or ideas of accidental circumſtances, are uſually formed by a combination of other words, and may be referred t the claſs of abbreviations.

Thus the termination *leſs* added to the noun *number*, forms wha is called an adjective. But *leſs* is from the Saxon verb *leſan*, to diſmiſs. *Numberleſs*, is therefore, *number diſmiſſed*.

The termination *full*, which needs no explanation, is added t nouns—as *wonderful*, and this compound is called an *adjective*.

The termination *ly* is from the Saxon *liche* or *like* ; *heavenly* i *heavenliche*, *ſoberly ſoberliche* ; and ſo were theſe words written b Chaucer.

† This diviſion of words is complete—it is not liable to one exception. The common diviſion into *active*, *paſſive* and *neuter* is very inaccurate. We have no paſſive verb in the language ; an thoſe which are called *neuter* are moſtly *active*.

Many verbs are uſed both *tranſitively* and *intranſitively*, as occaſion requires. "*He reads well*," is intranſitive ; "*He read Engliſh well*," is tranſitive : But this affects not the definition give above.

What is an intranſitive verb?

An *intranſitive* verb expreſſes *action* or *being*, which is conned to the agent; as, *I run*, *he lives*, *they ſleep*. Therefore hen the verb is intranſitive, no object follows it.

How many things belong to a verb?

Four; perſons, number, time and mode.

How many perſons are uſed with verbs?

Three—as in the ſingular number, *I* write, *thou* writeſt, writes. In the plural, *we* write, *ye* or *you* write, *they* write.

How many times or tenſes are there?

Three; *preſent*, *paſt* and *future*. An action may be now ing; as, *I write* or *am writing.* The verb is then ſaid be in the *preſent tenſe.* An action may have been done me time ago; as, *I wrote* or *have written:* The verb is en in the *paſt time.* When the action is yet to come, the rb is in the *future time*; as, *I ſhall* or *will write.*

What is mode *in grammar?*

The manner of repreſenting *action* or *being.*

How do the Engliſh expreſs time and mode?

Principally by the means of ſeveral ſmall words called *auxaries* or *helpers*; viz. do, be, have, ſhall, will, may, can, ould, would, could and muſt.*

Which are the modes?

The infinitive, the indicative, the imperative, and the junctive.

Explain them.

---

* These helping verbs are by ſome grammarians conſidered as ncipal verbs. Doubtleſs they were all ſuch originally; ſome them are ſo now, as *do*, *be*, *have.* *To* is ſaid to be the ſame ginal as *do*—We preſerve *to* before the radical verb *to love*; and makes the preſent and paſt tenſes, *do love* and *did love.* I make iſtinction between the verbs—When they ſtand alone, I call n principal verbs—When prefixed to verbs and particles, I call n auxiliaries.

The infinitive expreſſes action or being, without limitation of perſon or number ; as, *to write.*

The indicative ſhows or declares an action or being ; as *I write, I am* ; or ſome circumſtances of action or being ; as, *I can write, I muſt ſleep* ; or aſks a queſtion ; as, *Do write?*

The imperative commands, exhorts, or prays ; as, *Writ go* ; *do thou grant.*

The ſubjunctive expreſſes action or being, under ſome condition or uncertainty ; and is commonly preceded by a particle ; as, *If I write.**

What are participles?

They are words which are formed from verbs, and hav the nature of verbs, nouns, or adjectives.

How do they end?

In *d, t, n,* or *ing.* Thus, from the verbs, move, teach write, go—are formed the participles, moved, taught, written, going.

What is the uſe of do *as a helping word?*

It has four uſes. 1*ſt*, To expreſs emphaſis or oppoſition as, "perdition catch my ſoul, but I *do* love thee."

2*d*, To ſave the repetition of another verb ; as, "h writes better than you *do* ; that is, better than you write."

3*d*, To aſk a queſtion ; *do* they write?

4*th*, It is elegantly uſed in negative ſentences ; as, "h *does* not walk."

In all other caſes it is obſolete or inelegant.

What is the uſe of be *and* have?

As helpers, they are ſigns of time.

What is the uſe of ſhall?

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* We have no modes in the ſenſe that the Romans and Gree had, viz. formed by different endings of verbs. But the foregoi common diſtribution of modes, ſeems to me natural, and muſt rend the acquiſition of the language eaſy. I cannot diſcard all diſtinctions of mode, becauſe not formed by inflections. Our combinations of words have uſes, which are reduceable to rule, and requi illuſtration.

In the firſt perſon it foretels; as, "I ſhall go; we ſhall ſpeak."

In the ſecond and third perſons, it implies a command or determination; as, "he ſhall go; you ſhall write."

What is the uſe of will?

In the firſt perſon, it promiſes; as, "I will pay him."

In the ſecond and third, it foretels; as, "he will ſpeak; you will go."

What is the uſe of would?

In the firſt perſon, it denotes a paſt, or conditional promiſe; or mere inclination. It is often uſed in the preſent time, in declaratory phraſes; as, "I would not chooſe any."

In the ſecond and third perſons it expreſſes inclination; as, "he would not go; you would not anſwer."

What is the uſe of ſhould?

In the firſt perſon, it commonly expreſſes event merely; as, "I ſhould write, if I had an opportunity."

In the ſecond and third perſons, it expreſſes duty or obligation; as, "you ſhould help the poor; he ſhould go to ſchool."

When an emphaſis is laid on *ſhould* or *would*, it varies their meaning.

The AUXILIARY *or* HELPING VERBS, *are thus varied:*

Do.	*Have.*	*Can.*
	Preſent Time or Tenſe.	
	Singular Number.	
I do	I have	I can
Thou doeſt or doſt, or you do	Thou haſt, or you have	Thou canſt, or you can
He doeth, does or doth	He hath or has	He can
	Plural Number.	
We do	We have	We can
Ye or you do	Ye or you have	Ye or you can
They do	They have	They can

Paſt

Paſt Time.

Singular.

I did	I had	I could
Thou didſt, or you did	Thou hadſt, or you had	Thou couldſt, or you could
He did	He had	He could

Plural.

We did	We had	We could
Ye or you did	Ye or you had	Ye or you could
They did	They had	They could

PARTICIPLES.

Doing	Having
Done	Had

Preſent Time.

Singular.

May	*Shall*	*Will*
I may	I ſhall	I will
Thou mayeſt, or you may	Thou ſhalt, or you ſhall	Thou wilt, or you will
He may	He ſhall	He will

Plural.

We may	We ſhall	We will
Ye or you may	Ye or you ſhall	Ye or you will
They may	They ſhall	They will

Paſt Time.

Singular.

I might	I ſhould	I would
Thou mighteſt, or you might	Thou ſhouldſt, or you ſhould	Thou wouldſt, or you wouldſt
He might	He ſhould	He would

Plural.

We might	We ſhould	We would
Ye or you might	Ye or you ſhould	Ye or you would
They might	They ſhould	They would

Muſt, has no variation.

How is the verb be *varied in the modes, times and perſons?*

The verb *be* is thus varied, and united to the other helping verbs.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Preſent Time, declaratory.

Singular.	*Plural.*
am	We are
Thou art, or you are	Ye or you are
He is	They are

Or thus,

be	We be
You be	Ye or you be
He is	They be

With *may*, in this manner;

may be	We may be
Thou mayeſt be, or you may be	Ye or you may be
y be	They may be

With *can*.

[illegible]	We can be
canſt be, or you be	Ye or you can be
can be	They can be

With *muſt*.

muſt be	We muſt be
hou muſt be, you muſt be	Ye or you muſt be
muſt be	They muſt be

Conditional, with *would*.

would be	We would be
hou wouldſt be, you would be	Ye or you would be
would be	They would be

With *could*, *ſhould* and *might*, in the ſame manner.

Paſt Time, declaratory.

as	We were
ou waſt, or you was	Ye or you were
was	They were

After *have* and *had*, the participle *been* is uſed.

I have been	We have been
Thou haſt been you have been	Ye or you have been
He has been	They have been
I had been	We had been
Thou hadſt been you had been	Ye or you had been
He had been	They had been
I could be	We could be
Thou couldſt be, or you could be	Ye or you could be
He could be	They could be

Would and *ſhould* are varied in the ſame manner ; but th forms of the verbs are not much uſed in the paſt time, exc after other verbs, or in negative and interrogative phraſes,

I might have been	We might have been
Thou mighteſt have been you might have been	Ye or you might have bee
He might have been	They might have been

Could have been, would have been, ſhould have been, in t ſame manner. *Muſt have been* is alſo uſed, but *muſt* is varied.

I may have been	We may have been
Thou mayeſt have been you may have been	Ye or you may have been
He may have been	They may have been

Future Time.

I ſhall be	We ſhall be
Thou ſhalt be, or you ſhall be	Ye or you ſhall be
He ſhall be	They ſhall be
I will be	We will be
Thou wilt be you will be	Ye or you will be
He will be	They will be

hall have been	We
ou ſhalt have been	Ye or you ſhall have been
you ſhall have been	
ſhall have been	They
vill have been	We
ou wilt have been	Ye or you will have been
you will have been	
will have been	They

IMPERATIVE *or* COMMANDING MODE.

thou, or	Be ye, or be you
thou be	Do ye be, or do you be

SUBJUNCTIVE *or* CONDITIONAL MODE.

his is formed merely by placing *if*, *tho*, *ſuppoſe*, *whether*, ome word implying condition, before the Indicative de thro all its variations; thus, *if I am*, *if he is*, *tho we* Except the following conditional form of this verb, which nly in the ſubjunctive, preſent time.

were	If we were
hou wert	If ye or you were
you were	
e were	If they were

PARTICIPLES.

Being	Been

teacher may direct the learner to add any paſſive participles the foregoing, which will give a combination of words expreſ- g the ſenſe of the Latin and Greek paſſive verbs.]

what manner are regular verbs varied in the ſeveral modes, and perſons?

hey are all varied like *turn* in the following example:

INFINITIVE MODE.—*To turn.*

INDICATIVE MODE.

Preſent Time, declaratory.

	We
turneſt	Ye or you turn
turn	
rneth, or turns	They

With the Helping Verbs, thus :

I do turn		We	do turn
Thou doſt turn you do turn		Ye or you	
He doth turn, or does turn		They	

I may turn		We	may turn
Thou mayeſt turn you may turn		Ye or you	
He may turn		They	

I can	turn	We	can turn
Thou canſt you can		Ye or you	
He can		They	

I muſt turn, &c.

Conditional.

I might	turn	We	might turn
Thou mighteſt you might		Ye or you	
He might		They	

I would turn
I could turn
I ſhould turn } varied in the ſame manner.

Paſt Time.

I turned	We turned
Thou turnedſt you turned	Ye or you turned
He turned	They turned

With the Helping Verbs, thus :

I did turn		We	did turn
Thou didſt turn you did turn		Ye or you	
He did turn		They	

I have	turned	We	have turned
Thou haſt you have		Ye or you	
He has		They	

had turned		We	had turned
hou hadſt turned		Ye or	
you had turned		you	
e had turned		They	
may	have turned	We	may have turned
hou mayeſt		Ye or	
you may		you	
e may		They	
could	have turned	We	could have turned
hou couldſt		Ye or	
you could		you	
e could		They	

I might have turned
I would have turned } varied in the ſame manner.
I ſhould have turned

Future Time.

ſhall turn		We	ſhall turn
hou ſhalt turn		Ye or	
you ſhall turn		you	
e ſhall turn		They	
will turn		We	will turn
hou wilt turn		Ye or	
you will turn		you	
e will turn		They	
ſhall	have turned	We	ſhall have turned
hou ſhalt		Ye or	
ou ſhall		you	
e ſhall		They	
will	have turned	We	will have turned
hou wilt		Ye or	
ou will		you	
e will		They	

Imperative Mode.

rn, or	Turn, or
rn thou or turn you, or	Turn ye or you, or
thou or you turn	Do you turn

PARTICIPLES.

Turning, Turned.

The ſubjunctive mode is the ſame with the indicative, wi *if*, *though*, or ſome term of condition prefixed.

PARTICLES *or* ABBREVIATIONS.

What do Grammarians call Particles ?

All thoſe ſmall words which connect nouns, verbs and ſe tences ; as, *and*, *for*, *from*, *with*, &c.

What are theſe words ?

They are moſtly abbreviations or corruptions of old no and verbs.

How may the abbreviations be diſtributed ?

Into Conjunctions, Prepoſitions and Adverbs.

What is the particular uſe of Conjunctions ?

To connect words and ſentences ; as, four *and* three m ſeven ; Thomas ſtudies, *but* John does not.

Which are the Conjunctions ?

Thoſe more generally uſed are the following ;

And, if, nor, either, ſince, unleſs, alſo, but, neit therefore, though, elſe, or, yet, becauſe, wherefore, whet

What is the uſe of prepoſitions ?

They are commonly placed before nouns or other wo to expreſs ſome relation.

Which are the particles called prepoſitions ?

Theſe which may ſtand alone, and are called *ſeparable* poſitions, viz.

A, for, till, above, before, from, until, about, behind, into, to, after, beneath, on, upon, towards, againſt, be of, under, among *or* amongſt, between, over, with, at, twixt, through, within, amidſt, beyond, by, during, w out, around.

The following are uſed only with other words, and therefore called *inſeparable* prepoſitions :

Be, con, dis, mis, per, pre, re, ſub, un.

What is the uſe of adverbs ?

To expreſs circumſtances of *time*, *place*, and *degree*, &c.

Which are ſome of the moſt common adverbs ?

Already, alway, by and by, elſe, ever, enough, far, he here, how, hither, thither, whether, indeed, much, ot, never, now, often, perhaps, rather, ſeldom, then, hence, there, very, when, where, whilſt or while, yeſter-ay.

Beſides theſe, there are great numbers of others, and par-icularly thoſe formed by *ly*, added to adjectives—*honeſt*, *hon-ſtly*.

What do we call ſuch words as; *alas*, *oh*, *fie*, *piſh*, &c.

Interjections. Theſe are mere expreſſions of paſſions which re ſudden and irregular.*

SENTENCES.

* The theory of adverbs, conjunctions and prepoſitions, which call *abbreviations*, is novel. I ſhall therefore introduce an ab-ract of Mr. Horne's explanations, as I find them in his *Diver-ons of Purley*.

ABBREVIATIONS called CONJUNCTIONS.

If.

If is the imperative of the Saxon, *gifan*, *to give*.

——— " My largeſſe
" Hath lotted her to be your brother's miſtreſs
" *Gif* ſhe can be reclaimed ; *Gif* not, his prey."
Sad Shepherd, Act. 2. Sce 1.

This paſſage is thus reſolved, " She can be reclaimed ; *Give at* (condition, circumſtance) my largeſſe hath lotted her to be ur brother's miſtreſs. She can not be reclaimed ; *give that*, my geſſe hath lotted her to be your brother's prey.

This word *if* was written by old authors, *yeve yef*, *yf*, *giſe*, *giff*, , &c. all corruptions of *gif*. *Gyn* is ſtill uſed in the north of ngland.—*Wilkins.*

This reſolution obviates the abſurdity which is incurred by rank-g *that* as a conjunction after *if*; *if that* ; for two conjunctions gether muſt be an abſurdity. The truth is, *if* is a verb, and *that* always a pronoun or adjective.

In Latin, *ſi* is the imperative of *ſum* ; being a contraction of *ſit*, *it* ; a mode of expreſſion equivalent to *gif*.

An was formerly uſed in the ſame manner.

" *An* they will take it, ſo. *If* not, he's plain." *Shakeſpeare.*

An is the imperative of *anan*, a word in the Anglo-Saxon lan-uage, ſignifying *grant*.

Unleſs.

This is from the Saxon *onleaſan*, to diſmiſs. It was formerly ritten *onleſs* or *onleſſe*.

" *Onles* ye believe, ye ſhall not underſtand."

That is, " ye believe, *diſmiſs that* (fact) ye ſhall not underſtand."

Yet.

SENTENCES.

What is a ſentence?

A *ſentence* is a number of words ranged in *proper* order, a making *complete* ſenſe.

What does the formation of ſentences depend on?

On agreement and government.

What is agreement?

Yet.

This is the ſame as *get* from the Saxon *getan*, to obtain.

Still.

This is from the Saxon *ſtellan*, to place or put.

Elſe is from *aleſan*, to diſmiſs. Imp. *ales*.

Tho' or though.

Theſe are from *thaſ* and *thaſig*; the imperatives of *thaſian* a *thaſigan*, a different ſpelling of the ſame word, which ſignified *allow*. Many of the common people, both in England and Am rica, pronounce the word *thaf* or *thof*, which is the exact original.

"Though he ſlay me, yet I will truſt in him." That is, " *low* or *ſuppoſe* he ſhall ſlay me, &c."

But.

This is uſed in two ſenſes, as it is derived from two original different ſignifications. One is from *bot*, the imperative of *bot* *to boot*; a word ſtill uſed in Engliſh for *more* or addition. T other, from *be-utan*, *be out*; be abſent. Gawin Douglas uſes *b* and *but*, as words of diſtinct ſignifications; and ſo do many o authors.

"*Bot* thy worke ſhall endure in laude and glorie,
But ſpot or ſalt condine eterne memorie."

Here *bot* is *more, further*; and *but*, *be out* or *without*."

In modern Engliſh, we ſay, "*But* let us proceed," that is, *bot* *more*. We ſay, "all *but* one," that is, "all, *be out* one," or *e* *cept* one. *But* is now uſed in both ſenſes, and is always the co traction of a *verb*.

Without.

This is from *wryth-utan*, *to be out*: It has the ſenſe of *but*, fr *be-utan*. It is applied to words and to ſentences. "I will not *without* (be out) him." "It cannot be read *without* (be out) Attorney General conſents to it." Lord *Mansfield*.

And.

This is from *an* the Imperative of *anan*, *to give*, and *ad*, *ſeries, reſt, remainder*. *An, ad, give the reſt*.

The uſual definition of *and* is wretchedly incorrect. "*And* i conjunction copulative; the conjunction connects ſentences, ſo

When one word ſtands connected with another word, in he ſame *number*, *caſe*, *gender* and *perſon*.

What is government?

It is when one word cauſes another to be in ſome *caſe* or *node*.

RULE

ut of two, to make one ſentence," Thus, "*You and I and Peter ode to London*," is one ſentence made up of three. "*You rode, I ode, Peter rode*." But let us try another example. "*I bought a ook for four ſhillings and ſix pence*." That is, according to the ſual definition, "*I bought a book for four ſhillings, I bought a ook for ſix pence*." *And*, with all its connecting force, cannot make ne ſentence of theſe.

And is a contraction of a noun and verb, *I bought a book for four illings*, give the addition, *ſix pence*.

Leſt.

From *leſan*, to diſmiſs. Hence *leaſe* and *releaſe*.

"Kiſs the ſon, *leſt* he be angry." That is, "Kiſs the ſon, *diſ-iſs* or *omit* that, he will be angry." This by the way, is a proof at this mode of expreſſion, which has hitherto been conſidered the eſent tenſe of the ſubjunctive, is merely an elliptical form of the ture Indicative.

Since.

This is the participle of *ſeon*, *to ſee*. It was formerly written *h*, *ſithence*, &c. and is to this day, pronounced by the common ople, *ſence*, *ſen*, *ſin*, &c. It is uſed for *ſeen thence*, or for *ſeen*, r *ſeeing that*, or for *ſeen that*. But at this day writers often uſe e participle *ſeeing*.

As.

From the German *es*, *that*, a pronoun.

Many other words, as, *except*, *becauſe*, are commonly called con-nctions; but very improperly. Since Latin words have been corporated with the Saxon, we uſe, *ſuppoſe*, *on condition*, *provided at*, nearly in the ſenſe of *if*.

ABBREVIATIONS called PREPOSITIONS.

With.

With, is from *withan*, to join. "A houſe *with* a wall," is, A houſe *join* a wall." It is often ſynonimous with *by*.

Through.

This is from the Gothic, *dauro*, or Teutonic, *thuruh*, a paſſage gate. Hence the Engliſh *door*, the German *thure*, *thur*, &c.

From.

The Gothic noun, *from* a beginning. "Five miles *from* New-ork," is, "Five miles beginning New-York.

RULE 1.

A verb muſt agree with its nominative caſe in number an perſon.

EXAMPLES.

In the ſolemn ſtyle: *Thou readeſt, he readeth, ye read.*

In the familiar ſtyle: *I go, he goes, we go, you go.*

EXPLANATION.

To.

From the Gothic *taui, act, effect, conſummation*; participle *taui* from *tauyan, to do, to finiſh*. It ſeems to have been prefixed verbs, on dropping the Saxon termination of the infinitive, *an*, wi a view to diſtinguiſh *verbs* from *nouns*. *One loves change, one lov to change*, that is *act change*.

The Latin *ad* is probably from *act*, which is from *actum*, participle of *agere*; and correſponds with *to* in ſenſe and derivation.

Of.

From the Saxon *afora, offſpring, conſequence*. The Ruſſia formerly uſed this, where the Engliſh would uſe *ſon*, as a patronymic ending. *Peterſon*, the Ruſſians would have called *Peterhof*.

For.

From the Gothic, *fairina*, cauſe, "Chriſt died *for us*," that i *cauſe us*.

By.

This is from *byth*, the imperative of *beon*, to *be*. This was formerly uſed for *during*. "He made Clement, *by* his lyfe, help and ſucceſſor." *Fabian*.

In old authors it was written *be*.

"*Be* my feth, *be* my troth."——*Chevy Chace*.

We now ſay, "*By* my faith."

Between. Betwixt.

Between, is the imperative *be*, and *twegen*, *twain*.

Betwixt is *be*, and *twas* the Gothic for *two*.

Before, behind, below, beſide, are compounded with *be*, and nouns *fore, hind, low, ſide*.

Beneath is from *be* and *neath*; that is, *bottom*. From *neath*, have *nether, nadir*, ſtill in uſe.

Under ſeems to be *on nether*, or as the Dutch pronounce it *ni* from *neath*.

Beyond, is from *be* and *geond*, the participle of *gan*, or *gang to go*. *Beyond*, is therefore, *be paſſed*.

Ward, is the Saxon *ward* or *weard*, imperative of *wardion*, *look at*. It is the ſame as the French *garder*; for we begin wit

wor

EXPLANATION.

Thou is the ſecond perſon ſingular number, and ſo is the
erb, *readeſt*. *He* is the third perſon ſingular, and ſo is *read-*
h. *Ye* is the ſecond perſon plural number, and ſo is the
erb *read*. And it may be obſerved in the familiar ſtyle,
hat each verb is in the ſame perſon as its nominative word.

REMARK

ords which the French begin with *g*. Hence come *ward*, *war-*
n, *toward*, *homeward*, *heavenward*, &c.
The Engliſh *ward* and *warden*, are the ſame as *guard* and *guar-*
ian, derived from the French *garder*.
Athwart, is from *athweorian*, *to twiſt*.
Among, *amongſt*, are from *gemengan*, *to mix*.
Againſt, in the Saxon, *ongegen*, probably from the ſame root as
e Dutch *jagenen*, *to meet* or *oppoſe*.
Amid, *amidſt*, are from *on middan*, *in the midſt*.
Along is from the Saxon *on long*, *a length* or *diſtance*.
Round, *around*, in Saxon, *wheil*, *on wheil*; whence probably the
nglish *wheel*. *On round* or *one round*. Dan. *rund*.
Aſide, *abroad*, *acroſs*, *aſtride*, are formed in the ſame manner.
n ſide, or *one ſide*. We often ſay now, "he went *one ſide*."
Inſtead, is, *in place*. *Bed-ſtead*, *home-ſtead*, are, *bed place*, *home*
ace.
About, from *onbuta*, *abuta*, *one bound*. Hence to *butt* and *bound*.
After, the comparative of *aft*, the *hind part*.
Aft is retained only in the ſeamen's dialect.
Up, probably from the ſame root as *top*.
Over, from Saxon *ufa*, *ufera*, *ufermoſt*, which ſignify, *high*, *high-*
, *higheſt*. Hence, *above*, *upper*, *uppermoſt*.

ABBREVIATIONS called ADVERBS.

The termination *ly*, is from the Saxon *liche*, *like*; *heavenly*, is
avenlike.
Aghaſt is from *agaze*, to look with aſtoniſhment.
Ago is merely a contraction of *agone*, from *go*.
Aſunder is from *aſundred*, participle of *aſundrian*, *to ſeparate*.
Aſkew. In the Daniſh *ſkiev*, is to *twiſt*.
Aſlant, aſkance, in the Dutch, *ſchuin*, *wry*, *crooked*.
To wit, from *wittan*, *to know*.
Naught, *nought*, *no whit*,
Needs, *need is*.
Anon, *in one* (moment, &c.)

Alone,

REMARK 1.

Although the nominative word commonly ſtands befo the verb, as in the foregoing examples; yet it may follow intranſitive verb; as, "on a ſudden *appeared the queen*."

And when a queſtion is aſked or a command given, t nominative muſt follow the verb or auxiliary ſign; as, *d he go? were you there? go thou; awake you.* But in gi ing commands, we generally omit the nominative; as, g *awake.*

REMARK 2.

When *there, nor,* or *either*, precedes the verb in the begi nin

Alone, only from *all one, one like.*

Alive, on life, or *in life.* *Aſleep, on,* or *in ſleep.*

Anew, abroad, formed in the ſame manner.

Fare well, go well, from the old verb *faran, to go.* Hence, *ſ a paſſage, thurough fare,* to pay the *fare.*

Aught or *ought, a whit,* or *one whit.*

A while, in time, or *time that.*

Aloft, in air. In Saxon *lyft* is air. Hence, *to liſt, loft, luff,* *leeward,* &c.

Enough, Dutch, *genoeg, content.* *Lo,* from *look.* Hence our v gar exclamation, *la* ſoul.

Lief from *leof, glad, delight,* ſtill uſed, but corrupted into *li* "I had as *lives.*"

Once, twice, thrice, formerly written, *anes, twies, thries.* P haps the poſſeſſive of one, two, three.

Rather, the comparative of *rathe, prompt, ſwift.* *Rathe,* is by Milton.

Seldom, an adjective, *rare, uncommon.* In Dutch, *ſelden,* G man, *ſelten,* from the ſame root.

Stark, Saxon, *ſtare,* ſtrong; but now uſed like *total, entire, ſ mad.*

Span, from *ſpange, ſhining, ſpan new, ſpan clean.* Hence ſ *gle.*

Aye, a verb, which the French retain. It is the imperati *avoir,* to have; *aye, have it.* *Yes,* is *ay-es, have that.*

Yea, in German *ja,* pron. *yaw* is from the ſame ſource.

No, not, from an old word ſignifying *unwilling.* In Daniſh *nodig,* in Dutch *noode, node.*

Such is Mr. Horne's theory of the particles. If in ſome ſtances his ſyſtem is liable to doubts and exceptions, yet in ge it is well founded, being clearly eſtabliſhed by undiſputed ety gy.

ing of a phraſe, the nominative may follow the verb or aux-
iary ; as, "*there* was a man ;" *nor* am I ſolicitous ;"
neither hath this *man* ſinned, nor his parents." John ix. 3.

Remark 3.

When an intranſitive verb ſtands between two nominative
ords, the one in the ſingular, the other in the plural num-
r, the verb more elegantly agrees with the firſt ; as, " the
n is ten pounds ; all *things are* duſt."

False Construction.

Solemn Style.

Who *is* 1 thou, O man, that *preſume* 2 on thy own wiſdom?
ou *ought* 3 to know thou *are* 4 ignorant. He that *con-*
5 his ſins and *forſake* 6 them, ſhall find mercy. A ſoft
ſwer *turns* 7 away wrath. Anger *reſt* 8 in the boſom of
ls.

Familiar Style.

Philadelphia *are* 9 a large city ; it *ſtand* 10 on the weſt
of the river Delaware, and *am* 11 the moſt regular city
America. It *containeth* 12 a variety of different ſects ; all
ks 13 their own language ; and they *worſhippeth* 14 as
pleaſe. I *were* 15 much delighted with it ; I *wiſhes* 16
you *couldſt* 17 ſee it, and obſerve its manners.

N.B. The nominative to a verb is found by aſking a
ſtion, who or what ? Example : " A clear conſcience,
h we ought carefully to preſerve, in every ſtation of
and which will ſecure to us a perpetual ſource of inward
quillity, will alſo be our principal guard againſt the
es of malevolence." Here the queſtion occurs, what
be our guard ? &c. The anſwer is, a clear *conſcience,*
h is therefore the nominative caſe to the verb *be.* The
to which an adjective refers is found in the ſame man-
Example : " A man in office, to whom ſome important
is committed, ought to be exceedingly cautious in his
behaviour."

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rt. 2. preſumeth. 3 oughteſt. 4 art. 5 confeſſeth. 6 for-
h. 7 turneth. 8 reſteth.
is. 10 ſtands. 11 is. 12 contains. 13 ſpeak. 14 wor-
15 was. 16 wiſh. 17 could.

behaviour." Aſk the queſtion, who ought to be *cautious* the anſwer is, a *man* in office ; *man* therefore is the noun, which the adjective *cautious* refers.

RULE 2.

Two or more nouns ſingular connected by a copulati conjunction, may have *verbs*, *pronouns* and *nouns* agreeing wi them in the plural number.

EXAMPLES.

1. Envy and vanity *are* deteſtable vices.

2. Brutus and Caſſius *were brothers* ; *they* were *friend* Roman liberty.

EXPLANATION.

1. *Envy* and *vanity* are both nouns in the *ſingular* numb but being joined by the copulative conjunction *and*, they quire the word *are* to be in the *plural* number.

2. *Brutus* and *Caſſius* are both in the *ſingular* number, being united by a copulative conjunction they form a pi and require the verb *were*, the nouns *brothers* and *fri* and the pronoun *they*, to be in the plural number.

REMARK.

When nouns ſingular are united by a disjunctive conj tion, the *verb*, *pronoun* and *noun* following, muſt be i ſingular number, as referring to one only ; as, "either or *I was* there ;" "neither pride nor envy, nor any vicious paſſion *diſturbs* my repoſe."

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

Wiſdom and learning *is* 1 very neceſſary for men in ſtations. Peace and ſecurity *is* 2 the happineſs of a com -nity. Sobriety and humility *leads* 3 to honor. You *is* 4 very ſtudious. You and he *was* 5 accounted *ſcholar* 6. Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough 7 great generals ; *he was ſcourge* 8 to the houſe of Bou Love, joy, good humour and friendſhip *raiſes* 9 corresp ent feelings in every heart ; *it ſweeten* 10 all the pleaſur

1 are. 2 are. 3 lead. 4 are. 5 were. 6 ſcholars. 7 8 they were ſcourges. 9 raiſe. 10 they ſweeten.

e; but hatred, ill nature, jealouſy, envy, inſincerity and elanchollly *diffuſes* 11 *its* 12 baleful influence, and *caſts* 13 loud over ſocial felicity.

N. B. It muſt be remarked, that when different perſons mentioned, the verb muſt agree with the firſt in preference to both the others, and with the ſecond in preference to third. Thus all three perſons united; as, *you* and *I* and , make *we*, the firſt perſon plural.

You and *I* make *we*.

You and *he*, make *ye* or *you*, the ſecond perſon

RULE 3.

Nouns of multitude, though they are in the ſingular num-, may have a verb and pronoun agreeing with them either the ſingular or plural.

EXAMPLES.

The aſſembly *is* or *are* very numerous; *they are* much di-ed. "My people *is* or *are* fooliſh; *they have* not known ." The company *was* or *were* noiſy.

EXPLANATION.

Aſſembly is a noun of multitude, and may be united with *is* he ſingular, or with *are* in the plural number. The ſame bſervable of *people* and *company*.*

FALSE

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1 diffuſe. 12 their. 13 caſt.

We would have ſtrict regard to the meaning of theſe collective ns, in determining whether the ſingular or plural number is moſt er to be joined with them. And if the indefinite article *a* or precedes the noun, the verb muſt be ſingular; as, "*a* company , &c."

here are ſome nouns in Engliſh, that have a plural termination, ch are really in the ſingular, and are followed by verbs in the ular. Such are *news*, *pains*, *odds*, *victuals*, *alms*, *bellows*, *gal-*, and ſometimes *wages*. *Means* is uſed in both numbers, and etimes *pains*.

Examples.

What *is the news?*" General Practice.
Much *pains was* taken." General Practice.
Great *pains was* taken." Pope.
It *is odds*; what is the *odds?*" General Practice.
The *victuals is* good." General practice.
We had ſuch very fine *victuals* that I could not eat *it*." Swift.

" He

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

His cattle *is*[1] very large. Their conſtitution *were*[2] ſu verted by ambition. The church *were*[3] not free from fa profeſſors. The iſland *contain*[4] many inhabitants.

N. B. *Cattle*, though in the ſingular number, conveys idea of plurality, and therefore requires the verb to be p ral, in all caſes. But *conſtitution*, *church* and *iſland* are nouns of multitude, and they require a ſingular verb; tho good writers have uſed them as ſuch, with a plural ve "What reaſon *have the church* of Rome to talk of modeſty this caſe?" Tillotſon, vol. 1. ſer. 49. In ſome caſes thi admiſſible.

RULE 4.

An adjective muſt agree with its noun in number. P ticiples in the nature of adjectives, refer to ſome noun, have no variation.

EXAMPLES.

This man, *that* boy, *theſe* men, *thoſe* boys, *this* kind.

EXPLANATION.

Man is in the ſingular number, and ſo is the adje *th*

"He gave *much alms*." Bible.
"To aſk *an alms*." Bible.
"Give me *that bellows*." General Practice.
"*Let a gallows* be made." Bible.
"*This is a means*." General Practice, and almoſt all writers.
"The *wages* of ſin *is* death." Bible.

Under this remark we may rank, *billiards*, *fives*, *ethics*, *matics*, *meaſles*, *hyſterics*, and perhaps *riches*.

"*billiards* or *fives is* a game." General practice.
"*Ethics* or *mathematics is* a ſcience." General Practice
"The *meaſles is* a diſeaſe." General Practice.

Hyſterics is often uſed in the ſame manner.

"The *metaphyſics* of language *is* not yet ſufficiently culti *Michaelis*.

"In one hour *is* ſo great *riches*[*] come to nought." Bible.

But *wages* and *riches* are more frequently conſidered as pl *See Chaucer*.

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[*] *Anciently* riches *was in the ſingular* richeſſe: *and in the* richeſſes: *ſo that* riches *is literally in the ſingular number*.

1 are. 2 was. 3 was. 4 contains.

his. *Boy* is ſingular, and ſo is *that*. *Men* and *boys* are plu-l, and ſo are the adjectives *theſe* and *thoſe*.*

REMARK I.

Adjectives are commonly placed before the nouns to which ey refer.

EXAMPLES.

Adj.	*Noun.*	*Adj.*	*Noun.*
rave	men	warm	weather
rtuous	women	polite	behaviour
ind	friends	frugal	manners
iſe	rulers	illuſtrious	general

EXCEPTIONS.

1. When ſomething depends on an adjective, it follows e noun; as,

Noun.	*Adjective.*
Articles	neceſſary for a family.
food	convenient for me.
method	ſuited to his capacity.

2. When the adjective is emphatical, it is placed after the un; as,

Noun.	*Adjective.*
Alexander the	great.
Scipio	the younger.
Socrates	the wiſe.

3. Sometimes an intranſitive verb is placed between the un and adjective; as,

Noun.	*Verb.*	*Adjective.*
The ſun	is	pleaſant.
the war	was	expenſive.
virtue	is	amiable.

4. Sometimes the adjective ſtands before the verb or aux-ary; as,

Adjective.	*Verb.*	*Noun.*
Happy	is the	man.
happy	ſhall	he be.

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* It will be well to remark, that we have no adjectives in the guage that are varied, except *this* and *that*. All others, being ſame in all genders and numbers, cannot help agreeing with ir nouns; as, a *good* boy, or *good* boys, or *good* girls.

5. When ſeveral adjectives agree with one noun, th may ſtand after it ; as, a woman, *modeſt*, *ſenſible*, and *pr* *dent*.

REMARK 2.

Articles are commonly placed before adjectives ; thus,

Art.	*Adj.*	*Noun.*
A	wiſe	legiſlator.
a	great	ſcholar.
the	beſt	ſeaſon.
the	ſweeteſt	apples.

But they are placed after the adjectives *all*, *ſuch* and *ma* thus,

Adj.	*Art.*	*Noun.*
All	the	men.
ſuch	a	man.
many	a	man.

And after any adjective, ſubjoined to the adverbs, *ſo*, *how* ; thus,

Adv.	*Adj.*	*Art.*	*Noun.*
So	great	a	hero.
as	fine	a	genius.
how	bright	a	ſun.

REMARK 3.

When *this* and *that*, *theſe* and *thoſe*, ſtand oppoſed to other, *this* and *theſe* refer to the laſt member of the ſente *that* and *thoſe* to the former.

> " *Self-love*, the ſpring of action moves the ſoul :
> *Reaſon's* comparing balance rules the whole ;
> Man, but for *that*, no action could attend,
> And but for *this*, were active to no end." *Pop*

That, in the third line, refers to *ſelf-love* in the firſt ; *this*, in the fourth, refers to *reaſon* in the ſecond.

> " *Some* place the bliſs in action, *ſome* in eaſe ;
> *Thoſe* call it pleaſure, and contentment *theſe*."

Thoſe refers to men who place the bliſs in *action* ; *the* men who place the bliſs in *eaſe*.

REMARK 4.

The diſtributive pronomical adjectives, *each*, *every*, muſt always have verbs agreeing with them in the ſing numbe umber ; for they refer to individuals ſeparate from each ther ; as,

Each of us *is*—not each of us *are.*
Every one *was*—not every one *were.*
Either of the men *is*—not either of the men *are.*

REMARK 5.

Many words are either nouns or adjectives ; as, *good, evil.* nſtead of ſingle names, we often uſe compound nouns ; as, *re-ſtoves.*

REMARK 6.

Adjectives often refer to whole numbers of ſentences, as to ouns ; thus, "*Agreeable* to order, the committee paſſed a ote ;" "*prior* to the decree, it was reſolved." Theſe ſen- nces are tranſpoſed ; the natural order being ; "The com- ittee paſſed a vote, *agreeable* to order :" "It was reſolved *ior* to the decree." The adjectives *agreeable, prior,* agree ith the preceding member of the ſentence ; the committee ſſed a vote, *which* (act) was *agreeable* to order. It was re- lved, *which* (act of reſolving) was *prior* to the decree. This an eſtabliſhed uſage in the language.* The ſame rule is

found

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* In the ſentence, "*previous* to the vote, a motion was made." evious ſeems to refer to the word *time*, implied. But the general le is, that the adjective, in theſe phraſes, agrees with the whole ember of a ſentence. *Antecedent, ſubſequent, purſuant, according,* *nformable, ſuitable, independent,* are uſed in the ſame manner.

Some late writers, not attending to this idiom of the language, ve affected correctneſs by uſing adverbs in ſuch phraſes ; *previ- ſly* to this event, *agreeably* to order, *conformably* to his intention. do not recollect to have ſeen *ſubſequently* to this event, or *accord- gly* to orders, ever uſed ; but they are juſt as correct as the other amples which are frequently uſed. Setting aſide the difficulty of onouncing ſuch phraſes, the modern alteration is a groſs violation the rule of conſtruction, and of the pureſt practice. For inſtance, *reeably* means, *in an agreeable manner* ; but what an awkward nſtruction is this ; *in an agreeable manner to the order of the day,* was reſolved ! This is the literal reſolution of the phraſe, which not Engliſh ; there being no ſituation in which *to* will properly llow the adverbs *agreeably, accordingly,* &c. as their regimen.

In

found in this ſentence ; " Suppoſe *that* John ſhould com this morning." Here *that* refers to the whole ſubſequen part of the ſentence. But this relative is uſually omitted.

REMARK 7.

One adjective often qualifies another ; as, *very cold*, *fu* *ſweet*, *moſt excellent*. In theſe expreſſions, the laſt adjectiv refers to, and qualifies the noun employed in the ſentence and the firſt adjective qualifies the laſt, or ſhows the *degr* of the *quality* predicated of the thing. Thus, it is *very co* *weather* ; *weather* is the noun ; *cold* denotes the *quality* of th weather ; and *very* marks the *degree* of that quality. Th phraſe, *right worſhipful* is of this kind, and many others.*

REMAR

In thoſe examples where the adjective ſeems to denote the *ma* *ner of acting*, or *being*, and thus to qualify the *verb* inſtead the *ſentence*, it is more agreeable to the analogy of our language, ſuppoſe the word *manner* implied ; as, " he behaved himſelf *co* *formable* to that bleſſed example ;" that is, he behaved *in a mann* *conformable*. Or we may ſuppoſe *conformable* to agree with *he* the beginning of the ſentence ; *he, conformable* to the bleſſed ex ample, behaved himſelf. This laſt is the Latin idiom, and not un frequently found in Engliſh, eſpecially among the poets. But moſt inſtances, the *manner* of action or being has nothing to do the ſentence. Thus, " agreeable to promiſe, he called at fi o'clock :" In this ſentence there is no reference to the *manner* calling ; the *time* is a particular circumſtance in the promiſe, but is not the only circumſtance ; the whole affirmation or declaratio *he called at five o'clock* is *agreeable to promiſe*. This is the tr conſtruction ; it is the genius of the language ; and had gramma rians examined our *own language* and its *peculiar idioms*, th would have diſcovered, long before now, that *adjectives may agr* *with ſentences or members of a ſentence*, as well as with nouns.

I would juſt remark farther, that the original derivative meani of ſome adjectives in *able*, ſeems to be almoſt loſt in modern uſag Thus, *ſuitable*, *agreeable*, *conformable*, *proportionable*, and other do not often denote what *may be ſuited*, *conformed*, or *may agre* but what is *ſuited*, or *conformed*, or *agreeing*. " With a force *ſu* *able* to the enterprize," is a more uſual expreſſion, than " with a for *ſuited* to the enterprize."

* *Very* is merely the French *vrai*, true ; anciently written Engliſh *viray*. The rule above laid down is one of the beſt eſta bliſhed in the language ; and had not grammarians been blinded

a

REMARK 8.

Adjectives ſometimes qualify verbs and adverbs ; as, a bell
unds clear ; a ſtream *works clear* ; the ſun *ſhines bright* or
arm ; he *came quick* ; he *lives high* ; he *rides ſingle* ; it *pol-*
hes ſmooth ; he was *very coldly* received ; it was planted *full*
ſonably.*

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

That 1 pens want mending. *That* 2 books are torn.
heſe 3 is a fine day. *That* 4 will make excellent ſcholars.
heſe 5 lad will be an honor to his friends. *This* 6 ladies
have with modeſty.

"To

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eneration for the learned languages, the rule would not have
led to this time undiſcovered. Some eminent critics have con-
nned ſuch combinations as, *extreme cold, wondrous wiſe* ; but
ſe expreſſions are in exact conformity to the Engliſh idiom. To
ve this we need only to advert to this fact, moſt of ſuch phraſes
ich have gained an undiſputed eſtabliſhment, are of Saxon ori-
. The phraſes, *extremely cold, ſeverely virtuous*, are good Eng-
; and indeed we ſhould all pronounce *ſevere virtuous* bad Eng-
. But whoever heard of *verily cold, moſtly excellent ?* Perhaps
ill be ſaid, that *very, moſt, full*, &c. in ſuch phraſes, are uſed
verbially. This is a pitiful ſubſtitute for truth. The truth is,
Saxon idiom was to uſe *one adjective* to *qualify another* ; and
idiom ſtands its ground in the Saxon branch of the language ;
the Latin idiom, that an *adjective* is *qualified* by an *adverb*, has
introduced with the derivatives from the Roman tongue. Both
ms are good in Engliſh ; both are derived from the higheſt an-
ity, and ſtand on the immoveable baſis of *general undiſputed*
ctice, the foundation of all languages on earth.

I think no perſon will deny the examples above to be good
liſh ; or that the adjectives are added to the verbs to denote
quality of action or being. A bell *ſounds clear*, is good Eng-
; indeed *clearly* would be very awkward. Yet *clear* denotes
manner of a bell's ſounding.
ery coldly is *moſt clearly* good Engliſh ; and will any perſon ſay
is an *adverb ?* Theſe are remains of the Saxon idioms which
nmarians have no authority to condemn. Indeed in Latin de-
tives, I ſhould prefer the union of an *adjective* with an *adverb*
at of two *adverbs*. *Extreme ſuddenly*, though ſeldom uſed, is
ter phraſe than *extremely ſuddenly*.

These. 2 thoſe. 3 this. 4 thoſe. 5 this. 6 theſe.

" To diverſify *theſe* * *kind* of informations, the induſtry o the female world is not to be unobſerved."

Spect. No. 42

RULE 5.

The relative pronoun muſt agree with its antecedent i number, gender and perſon.

EXAMPLES.

1. This is the *boy, who* ſtudies with diligence; *he* wi make a ſcholar.

2. The *girl, who* ſits by you, is very modeſt; *ſhe* will be very amiable woman.

3. The *pen, which* you gave me, is good; it writes ver well.

EXPLANATION.

In the firſt example, *boy* the antecedent, is maſculine ge der; therefore *who* and *he*, the relative and pronoun, m be maſculine.

In the ſecond, *girl* the antecedent, is feminine; thereſo the relative *who* and pronoun *ſhe* are feminine.

In the third, *pen* the antecedent, is neuter, or of neith gender; therefore the relative *which* and pronoun *it* muſt uſed; theſe ſtanding for things without life.

REMARK.

The antecedent is ſometimes omitted; as, " give trib to whom tribute is due:" that is, to the *perſon* to whoſe tri bute is due.

The relative is often omitted; as, " the man I ſaw " the thing I want;" that is, " the man *whom* I ſaw " the thing *which* I want."

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

He *which* 1 is not contented with the goods of fortu *whom* 2 he now enjoys, muſt expect to be unhappy, e with greater poſſeſſions. He *which* 3 delights in villai muſt be rewarded with the infamy *whom* 4 he deſerves.

His ſiſter, *which* 5 is much beloved by *his* 6 acquai ance, for *its* 7 virtue and good ſenſe, is older than I a *he* 8 ſings and dances well, and *his* 9 good breeding

ſweetn

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* This kind.

1 Who. 2 which. 3 who. 4 which. 5 who. 6 her. 7
8 ſhe. 9 her.

weetneſs of temper are the admiration of *its* 10 companions.
Virtue is *his* 11 own reward. In this life *ſhe* 12 affords
eace of mind to thoſe *which* 13 poſſeſs *him*. 14.

N. B. *Who* is both maſculine and feminine; referring to
erſons of both ſexes: *Which* is applied to things without
ife, and to brutes.

The relative pronouns are the ſame in both numbers.

RULE 6.

If no nominative comes between the relative and the verb,
he relative is the nominative.

EXAMPLES.

This is the man, *who taught* rhetoric. The eſtates of thoſe
ho have taken arms againſt their country, ought to be con-
ſcated. We have a conſtitution *which ſecures* our rights.

EXPLANATION.

In theſe expreſſions, there being no nominative between
e relatives *who* and *which*, and the verbs, *taught*, *have*, and
cures, therefore the relatives are the nominatives.

REMARK.

The verb *to be* has a nominative after it, as well as before
; as, "it *was I*;" "ye *are they* who juſtify yourſelves."
or this reaſon this paſſage ſeems to be ungrammatical,
whom do men ſay that I am?" Matth. xvi. 13. It ought
be *who*, governed of *am*.

But in the infinitive mode, an objective caſe follows *be*; as,
I thought it to be *him*;" "you believe it to be *me*."

RULE 7.

But if a nominative comes between the relative and the
rb, the relative is governed by the following verb, or ſome
her word.

EXAMPLES.

This is the man *whom* I eſteem, *whoſe* virtues merit diſ-
ction, and *whom* I am happy to oblige.

EXPLANATION.

There being the nominative *I* between the relative *whom*
d the verb *eſteem*, *whom* is in the objective caſe, governed
by

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o her. 11 its. 12 it. 13 who. 14 it.

by the tranſitive verb *eſteem*. The next relative denoting poſſeſſion, is put in the poſſeſſive caſe, *whoſe* ; *virtues* being the nominative to *merit*. In the laſt member of the ſentence, *whom* is governed of *oblige* ; there being a nominative *I* between the relative and the verb *am*.

N. B. The compounds of *who* follow the ſame rule. "Whoever I am ;" "Whomſoever you pleaſe to appoint."

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

The boys, *who* 1 I admire, are thoſe that ſtudy. The women, *who* 2 I ſaw, were very handſome. The ſervant, *who* 3 you ſent, is not returned. *Who* 4 ſhould I meet the other day. *Who* 5 ſhould I ſee but my old friend. The boy, *whom* 6 loves ſtudy will be beloved by his inſtructor. The ladies, *whom* 7 poſſeſs modeſty, are always reſpected.

RULE 8.

Two nouns, ſignifying the ſame thing, muſt be in the ſame caſe and are ſaid to be in appoſition ; as, "Paul the Apoſtle;" "Alexander the conqueror."

But if they ſignify different things, and imply property, the firſt is put in the poſſeſſive caſe, by adding *s*, ſeparated from the word by an apoſtrophe.

EXAMPLES.

This is *John's* paper. We admire a *man's* courage and lady's virtue.

EXPLANATION.

The words *John's*, *man's*, *lady's*, denote property, and in the poſſeſſive caſe.

The ſame ideas may be thus expreſſed ; "this is the pap of John. We admire the courage of a man, and the virt of a lady."

REMARK 1.

In common diſcourſe, the name of the thing poſſeſſed generally omitted ; as, St. Paul's ; Mr. Addiſon's ; that i St. Paul's Church ; Mr. Addiſon's houſe.

REMARK 2.

The apoſtrophe ought always to be placed in the poſſeſ caſe to diſtinguiſh it from the plural number.

Thus,

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1 Whom. 2 whom. 3 whom. 4 whom. 5 whom. 6 w
7 who.

hus, "ſee the *lad's* manners," is poſſeſſive; but, "the *lads* ave no manners," is plural.

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

See that *boys* 8 impudence; he diſobeys his *maſters* 9 orders. hat *girls* 10 bonnet is awry. *John his* 11 book is loſt. his is *George his* 12 paper. The *kings* 13 edict is pub- ſhed.

RULE 9.

Tranſitive verbs govern the objective caſe.

EXAMPLES.

1. I admire *her*. She ſaw *him*. The Scripture directs *us*.
2. Religion honors its *votaries*. Shame follows *vice*.

EXPLANATION.

1. The verbs *admire, ſaw, directs*, are tranſitive, and go- n the pronouns *her, him, us*, in the objective caſe.

2. *Honors* and *follows*, being tranſitive verbs, are ſaid to vern the words *votaries* and *vice*, which expreſs the objects their influence.

REMARK 1.

Sometimes the perſonal pronouns and always the relatives, o, *which, what, that*, are placed before the verb that gov- s them.

ro. and Rel.	Governed by the *Verbs*.	
Whom	ye ignorantly	*worſhip*.
Him		*declare* I unto you.
Whom	do you	*ſee?*
Which	will you	*take?*

REMARK 2.

articiples may govern the ſame caſes as their verbs; as, am *viewing* a fine *proſpect*; I have *moved them*." Here *wing* and *moved* are participles, yet govern the words *proſ-* and *them*.

. B. As few or no errors are committed under this rule, needleſs to give examples of falſe conſtruction.

RULE 10.

he anſwer muſt be in the ſame caſe, as the queſtion; it always governed by the verb that aſks the queſtion, gh the verb is not expreſſed.

EXAMPLES.

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oy's. 9 maſter's. 10 girl's. 11 John's. 12 George's. ng's.

EXAMPLES.

Queſtions.	*Anſwers.*
Who wrote this book ?	*George.*
who is this ?	*he.*
whom do you ſee ?	*them.*
whom do you admire ?	*her.*

EXPLANATION.

In the firſt two queſtions, *who*, the word that aſks th queſtion, is in the nominative ; and ſo are the anſwers *Georg* and *he*. In the two laſt, *whom* is in the objective, and ſo a the anſwers *them* and *her*.

The propriety of this will better appear by expreſſing th queſtions and anſwers at large.

Queſtions.	*Anſwers.*
Who wrote this book ?	*George* wrote it.
who is this ?	it is *he.*
whom do you ſee ?	I ſee *them.*
whom do you admire ?	I admire *her.*

RULE II.

Prepoſitions govern the objective caſe.

EXAMPLES.

I write *for him.* Give the box *to her.* You will ride *w* *them*, or *with us.*

EXPLANATION.

For, *to* and *with*, are prepoſitions and require the prono *him*, *her*, *them* and *us* to be in the objective caſe.

REMARK I.

The prepoſition may be omitted with propriety ; as, " me the book ;" that is, *to me.* " I will go *next Monday* that is, *on next Monday.*

REMARK 2.

Formerly prepoſitions joined with adverbs, ſupplied place of pronouns ; thus,

Herewith	were uſed for	with this
wherewith		with which
thereto		to that
thereat		at that
thereby		by that
whereby		by which
whereunto		to which
whereof		of which
wherein		in which

But theſe are going into diſuſe.

Note. Prepoſitions are ſometimes prefixed to adverbs ; as,
where, from where, over where, &c. This is only an ellip-
cal form of expreſſion ; the word *place*, or ſome word of the
me import, being implied. For example ; " The weſtern
mit of the United States extends along the middle of the
ver Miſſiſippi, *to where* it interſects the thirty-firſt degree
north latitude ;" that is, to the *place where*. But the
raſe is by no means elegant.

Note, further, That prepoſitions are often placed after
rbs, and become a part of them ; being eſſential to the
eaning. Thus, in the phraſes, *to fall on, to give over, to*
ſt up (an account) the particles *on, over, up,* are eſſential to
e verbs to which they are annexed, becauſe on them de-
nds the meaning of the phraſes. This ſort of verbs is
rely Saxon ; they are often very ſignificant, and their
ace cannot always be ſupplied by any ſingle word.

RULE 12.

Conjunctions connect like caſes.

EXAMPLES.

You and *I* were both preſent. *He* and *ſhe* ſit together.
was told to *him* and *me*. It is diſagreeable to *them* and *us*.

EXPLANATION.

The pronoun *you*, being in the nominative caſe, *I* is re-
ired to be there too, becauſe it is coupled to *you* by the
njunction *and*. The caſe is the ſame with *he* and *ſhe* ; *him*
me ; *them* and *us* ; except that the four laſt are in the ob-
tive caſe.

REMARK.

When a compariſon is made between different perſons or
ngs, the word that follows *than*, is not governed of it, but
ſome verb or prepoſition implied ; thus,

u are taller than *I*	Are better under-ſtood thus,	You are taller than *I am*.
s older than *ſhe*		he is older than *ſhe is*.
are younger than *they*		we are younger than *they are*.
think him handſomer than *me*		you think him handſomer than you think *me*.
ſings as well as *he*		ſhe ſings as well as *he ſings*.
rite as well as *you*		I write as well as *you write*.

FALSE

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

It was agreeable to him and *I* 1, that we and *them* 2 ſhou ſtudy together. It was told to us and *ye* 3. Will he go wi you and *I* 4? Neither ſhe nor *him* 5 was there. He taug both me and *ſhe* 6. Either you or *me* 7 muſt go. Neith they nor *us* 8 were preſent. John and *me* 9 are not goo ſcholars.

N. B. The relative *who* after *than*, is improper; it oug always to be *whom*, in the objective; as, "we have a gene al, *than whom* Europe cannot produce a greater character."

RULE 13.

The infinitive mode follows a *verb*, a *noun*, or an *adjecti*

EXAMPLES.

1. It follows a verb; as, let us learn to *practiſe* virtue.
2. A noun; as, you have a fine opportunity *to learn*.
3. An adjective; as, my friend is worthy *to be* truſted.

EXPLANATION.

In the firſt example, *practiſe*, is a verb in the infini mode, following the verb *learn*.

In the ſecond, *learn*, is in the infinitive, following the n *opportunity*.

In the third, *be*, is in the infinitive, following the a tive *worthy*.

REMARK 1.

The infinitive mode or part of a ſentence often has the ture of a noun; and does the office of a nominative or ob tive caſe.

Of a nominative; as	*Of an objective*; as,
To play is pleaſant.	I love *to play*.
to ſtudy is uſeful.	I hate *to quarrel*.
to be virtuous is wiſe.	I deſire *to learn*.

REMARK 2.

The infinitive mode is often made abſolute or indepe on the ſentence; as, "*to confeſs* the truth I wa fault;" "but *to proceed*;" "*to conclude*," &c. This of expreſſion may be reſolved into the ſubjuncti th

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1 me. 2 they. 3 you. 4 me. 5 he. 6 her. 7 I.
9. I.

ns, " that I may confeſs the truth ; that I may proceed ; at I may conclude," &c

REMARK 3.

It is a general rule in the language that *to* is a ſign of the finitive mode ; but we have a few verbs that will admit of other verb after them in the infinitive without *to,* ſuch as, *d, dare, need, make, ſee, hear, feel* ; as, " he has bid me *do* " not " bid me *to do* it."

RULE 14.

A participle, with a prepoſition preceding it, anſwers to e Latin gerund, and may govern an objective caſe. /

EXAMPLES.

By avoiding evil.
by doing good.
by ſeeking peace ; and
by purſuing it.

By ſhunning him.
in obſerving them.
for eſteeming us.
by puniſhing them.

EXPLANATION.

he participles *avoiding, doing, ſeeking,* &c. govern the ective words *evil, good,* &c.

REMARK 1.

But a participle with an article before it, generally has the ure of a noun, and may have the prepoſition *of* after it. /

By *the* avoiding *of* evil.
by *the* doing *of* good.

By *the* obſerving *of* which.
by *the* puniſhing *of* whom.

The following expreſſions ſeem to be not grammatical.

either { By *the* avoiding which
by *the* doing which
by *the* obſerving them } nor { By avoiding *of* which
by doing *of* which
by obſerving *of* them.

Either *the* before the participle and *of* after it, ought both e uſed, or both to be omitted.

ut our beſt writers always have uſed the article before the iciple, without the prepoſition after it, and in ſome in- ces it is not avoided without difficulty.

REMARK 2.

articiples often become mere adjectives, denoting a qual- and as ſuch admit of compariſon ; thus,

Poſ. Com. Super.
A *learned—more learned—moſt learned* man. /
a *loving—more loving—moſt loving* father.
a *feeling—more feeling—moſt feeling* heart.

REMARK 3.

A participle, with an adverb, may be placed independ of the ſentence ; as, "this, *generally ſpeaking*, is a good rule.

Note. Inſtead of the particle in *ed*, ſome writers, partic larly the poets, have uſed an adjective derived of a verb ; *devote, annihilate, exhauſt* ; for *devoted, annihilated, exhauſt* But theſe are become obſolete.

REMARK 4.

The participles in *ing* often have the nature both of and *verbs*. They are preceded by an article, a noun, pronoun poſſeſſive, and yet govern the objective caſe. Th may be called *participial nouns.* They are much uſed in alnguage, and their place cannot always be well ſupplied a different conſtruction.

EXAMPLES.

"I heard of *his ſeeing him*." "We ſeldom hear of a *deſpiſing* wealth ; or of a *woman's hating* flattery."

Sometimes two participles have the nature of a noun; "I heard of his *being noticed*." "His *being praiſed*, exc envy."

Some writers omit the ſign of the poſſeſſive ; "we ſel hear of a *man deſpiſing* wealth." But this ſeems not ſo rect ; for the object of the verb is not ſo much the *man*, *contempt* of wealth. Beſides the object of the verb, the heard, is an act *paſſed*, and conſequently a noun ; rather an act *performing*, which would make *deſpiſing* a proper p ciple. In this phraſe, "a *man deſpiſing* wealth ;" *deſpi* a proper participle. In this, a *man's deſpiſing* wealth, it noun, ſtill governing *wealth*. The latter is the *parti* *noun*, and the moſt correct phraſe.

REMARK 5.

Some participles in *ing* have a paſſive ſignification. " book is now *printing*." "Such articles are now *ſelli* vendue."

RULE 15.

A nominative caſe, joined with a participle, often independent of the ſentence. This is called the caſe ute.

EXAM

EXAMPLES.

The ſun being riſen, it will be warm. *They all conſenting*, e vote was paſſed. "Jeſus conveying himſelf away, *a ultitude being in that place.*"

EXPLANATION.

The words in Italics are not connected with the other parts f the ſentence, either by agreement or government; they e therefore in the caſe abſolute, which, in Engliſh, is alays the nominative.

FALSE CONSTRUCTION.

Him 1 being ſick, the phyſician was called.
Him 2 being crazy, it was neceſſary to confine him.
Her 3 being dreſſed, ſhe went to the aſſembly.
Them 4 being convened, they began buſineſs.
Us 5 knocking, the door was opened.

REMARK 16.

An adverb muſt always ſtand near the word which it is dened to affect or modify.

1. It is placed before an adjective; as,

Adv.	*Adj.*
Very	wiſe.
Extremely	cold.
rigidly	juſt.

2. It is uſually placed after a verb; as,

Verbs.	*Adv.*
To write	correctly.
to ſing	ſweetly.
to behave	politely.

3. It is placed between an auxiliary and a verb or partile; as,

Aux.	*Adv.*	*Verbs* or *Part.*
She was	elegantly	dreſſed.
ſhe was	greatly	admired.
I have	often	ſeen.
he has been	much	celebrated.
we ſhall be	highly	pleaſed.
they will	ſoon	obſerve.

REMARK 1.

e uſe many adverbs before a ſingle verb; as, "*I comy* eat at ſix o'clock;" and the adverb *never* is

uſually

He. 2 he. 3 ſhe. 4 they. 5 we.

uſually placed before both verbs and auxiliaries; as, "I *neve* will be ſeen there." But this ſeems not ſo elegant, as, " will *never* be ſeen there."

REMARK 2.

Two negatives deſtroy each other and amount to an affirmative; thus,

I do *not* know *nothing* (about it.	Are the ſame in ſenſe as	I do know ſomething abo (i
I did *not* hear *nothing*.		I did hear ſomething.
I did *not* hear *not* one (word.		I did hear one word.
he may *not* get *none*.		he may get ſome.
you *cannot* ſee *none*.		you can ſee ſome.

REMARK 3.

No ſtands alone in anſwer; as, Will you go? *No*. Bu any other word is uſed, the negation is expreſſed by *not*; a will they go? They will *not*.

No is uſed for *not*; as, "I will go, whether he will or *no*.

No is uſed as an adjective before nouns; as, *no man*, *houſe*.

RULE 17.

After the conjunctions, *if*, *though*, *unleſs*, *except*, *wheth* the auxiliary ſign is ſometimes omitted in the future time.

EXAMPLES.

"Though he ſlay me, yet will I truſt in him."

Job xiii. 1

"Unleſs he waſh his fleſh, he ſhall not eat of the h things."

Lev. xxii.

That is, "though he ſhall ſlay me," &c. "unleſs ſhall waſh," &c.*

REMARK

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* I cannot admit that theſe expreſſions belong to the pre tenſe of the ſubjunctive mode. The ideas are clearly future, the verbs are in the future in the original. In moſt inſtances w authors have uſed, "if I be," "if he be," "if he have," "i ſay," &c. the phraſes are reſolvable into the future or the pre form of the indicative, by ſupplying an auxiliary: "If he ca may be," "if he ſhall have," "if he ſhould ſay." Moſt aut uſe the preſent and future of the ſubjunctive promiſcuouſly; ſo times *if he has* or *is*, and at other times, *if he have* or *be*. It app to me the diſtinction is very eaſy. The firſt belongs to the pre and the laſt to the future.

REMARK 1.

The conjunction may be elegantly omitted and the nomi- ative be placed after the auxiliary;—as, "had I been there," nſtead of "if I had been there." "Were I the perſon," nſtead of "if I were the perſon."

REMARK 2.

Some conjunctions have correſpondent conjunctions, which ught to follow, in the ſubſequent part of the ſentence.

EXAMPLES.

Although our enemies were powerful, *yet* we defeated em.
Whether it was John, *or* Thomas.
Either the one *or* the other.
Neither the one *nor* the other.
As with the people, *ſo* with the prieſt.
Their troops were not *ſo* brave as ours.

AN EXERCISE.

The following examples will teach children to diſtinguiſh e parts of ſpeech, and enable them to underſtand their con- ction by agreement and government, according to the egoing rules.*

EXAMPLE.

"A woman who has merit, improved by a virtuous and fined education, retains, in her decline, an influence over men, more flattering than even that of beauty. She is delight of her friends, as formerly of her admirers."

"Admirable would be the effects of ſuch refined edu- ion, contributing no leſs to public good than to private pineſs. A man, who at preſent muſt degrade him- into a fop or a coxcomb, in order to pleaſe the women, would ſoon diſcover, that their favor is not to b gained, but by exerting every manly talent in public an private life ; and the two ſexes, inſtead of corrupting eac other, would be rivals in the race of virtue. Mutual eſtee would be to each a ſchool of urbanity ; and mutual deſire o pleaſing would give ſmoothneſs to their behavior, delicacy t their ſentiments, and tenderneſs to their paſſions."

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* This is called parſing. In this children may be much aſſiſted Pocket Dictionary, which diſtinguiſhes the parts of ſpeech. s method of parſing the Engliſh Language, which has been erto very little practiſed, is the only way to obtain a thorough wledge of it.

Home's Hiſt. Man. Sketch 6.

The foregoing paragraphs may be thus parſed.

A	The indefinite article.
woman	A noun, in the ſingular number, nominati caſe to the verb *retains*.
who	A relative pronoun, referring to woman, i antecedent, nominative caſe to the ve *has*. Rule 6.
has	A tranſitive verb, in the indicative mode, pr ſent time, third perſon ſingular, agree with its nominative *who*. Rule 6.
merit	A noun, in the ſingular number, objective c after *has*. Rule 9.
improved	A participle, from the verb *improve*, in the n ture of an adjective, agreeing with *meri* Rule 4.
by	A prepoſition.
a	Indefinite article.
virtuous	An adjective, agreeing with *education*. Rule
and	A conjunction, connecting *virtuous* and *refin* Rule 12.
refined	A participle, in the nature of an adjective, greeing with *education*. Rule 4.
education	A noun ſingular, governed by the prepoſiti *by*. Rule 11.
retains	A verb tranſ. ind. preſ. 1ſt form 3d perſ ſingular, agreeing with its nominative *man*. Rule 1.
in	A prepoſition.
her	A pronominal adjective, agreeing with *decl* Rule 4.
decline	A noun. ſing. governed by *in*. Rule 11.

n	Indefinite article, for *a*, becauſe the following word begins with a vowel.
fluence	A noun ſing. governed by *retains*. Rule 9.
ver	A prepoſition.
e	The definite article.
en	A noun, plural, governed by *over*. Rule 11.
ore	An adverb.
attering	A participle, in the nature of an adjective, derived from *flatter*, agreeing with *influence*. Rule 4.
an	A conjunction.
en	An adverb.
at	A relative pronoun in the room of *influence*.
	A prepoſition.
auty	A noun, governed by *of*. Rule 11.
e	A pronoun, feminine gender, nom. to *is*.
	An intranſitive verb, ind. preſent tenſe, 3d perſon ſing. agreeing with *ſhe*. Rule 1.
	Definite article.
ight	A noun, ſing. nom. after *is*. Remark on Rule 6.
	A pronominal adj. agreeing with *friends*. Rule 4.
nds	A noun, plural, governed by *of*. Rule 11.
	A conjunction.
nerly	An adverb, from *former*.
irers	A noun, plural, governed by *of*. Rule 11.
irable	An adjective, agreeing with *effects*. Rule 4; placed before *be*. Exception 4 to Rule 4.
ld be	*Would* an auxiliary, *be*, a verb intranſitive, indicative, preſent, 3d perſon plural, agreeing with *effects*. Rule 1.
ts	A noun, plural, nominative to *would be*, by Remark 1, on Rule 1.
	An adjective, referring to *education*. Rule 4.
ed	As before.
tion	As before.

contributing

contributing	A participle, agreeing with *education*. Rule
no	An adverb.
leſs	An adverb.
to	A prepoſition.
public	An adjective, agreeing with *good*. Rule 4.
good	An adjective, uſed as a noun. Remark 5. Rule 4, governed by *to*. Rule 11.
than	A conjunction.
to	
private	An adj. agreeing with *happineſs*. Rule 4.
happineſs	A noun, ſingular, governed by *to*. Rule 1
A	
man	A noun, ſing. nominative to *would diſcover*.
who	A relative, nom. to *muſt degrade*. Rule 6.
at preſent	An adverb, a contract. of *at the preſent time*.
muſt degrade	A verb tranſ. ind. preſent, 6th form, 3d p ſon ſing. agreeing with *who*. Rule 1.
himſelf	A pronoun, objective caſe, gov. by *degrad* Rule 9.
into	A prepoſition.
a	Indefinite article.
fop	A noun ſing. governed by *into*. Rule 11.
or	A conjunction.
a	
coxcomb	A noun, ſing. connected with *fop*, by *or* Rule 12.
in	
order	A noun, ſing. governed by *in*. Rule 11.
to pleaſe	A verb tranſitive, infinitive mode, 1ſt form, lowing the noun *order*. Rule 13, 2.
the	
women	A noun, plu. governed by *pleaſe*. Rule 9
would diſcover	A verb tranſ. ind. preſ. *(pp)* 3d perſon agreeing with *man*. Rule 1.
ſoon	An adverb.
that	A conjunction.
their	A pron. adj. agreeing with *favor*. Rule 4
favor	A noun ſing. nominative to *is*.
is	A verb intranſ. ind. preſ. 3d perſon ſin greeing with *favor*. Rule 1.
not	An adverb.

be	A verb intranſ. infinitive mode.
ined	A participle, agreeing with *favor*.
	A conjunction.
	A prepoſition.
rting	A participle, governing *talent*. Rule 14.
ry	A diſtributive pronominal adj. agreeing with *talent*. Rule 4.
ly	An adj. agreeing with *talent*.
nt	A noun ſing. gov. by *exerting*, by Remark 2, on Rule 9.
lic	An adj. agr. with *life* underſtood. Rule 4.
vate	An adjective, agreeing with *life*.
	An adj. agr. with *ſexes*. Rule 4.
	A noun, plu. nom. to *would be*.
ad	An adverb.
upting	A participle. Rule 14.
	A diſtrib. pron. adj. agreeing with *other*. Rule 4.
	A pron. adj. ſtanding for a noun. Remark 5, on Rule 4; gov. by *corrupting*. Remark 2, Rule 9.
d be	A verb intranſ. ind. preſ. 3d perſon plural, agreeing with *ſexes*. Rule 1.
ls	A noun, plu. nom. after *be*. Rule 6. Remark.
	A noun, ſing. gov. by *in*. Rule 11.
e	A noun ſing. gov. by *of*. Rule 11.
al	An adjective, agreeing with *eſteem*. Rule 4.
	A noun, ſingular, nominative to *be*.
d be	As before, 3d perſon ſing. agreeing with *eſteem*. Rule 1.
	A diſtrib. pron. adj. ſtanding for *ſex* alſo. Rule 4, Remark 5, gov. by *to*. Rule 11.

a	
ſchool	A noun ſing. nom. after *be*. Remark on Rule 6.
of	
urbanity	A noun, ſing. governed by *of*. Rule 11.
and	
mutual	An adjective, agreeing with *deſire*. Rule 4.
deſire	A noun, ſing. nom. to *would give*.
of	
pleaſing	A participle, governed by *of*. Rule 14.
would give	*Give* is a tranſ. verb, ind. preſent. No. 11. 3d perſon ſingular, agreeing with *deſi* Rule 1.
ſmoothneſs	A noun, governed by *give*. Rule 9.
to	
their	A pron. adj. agr. with *behavior*. Rule 4.
behavior	A noun ſing. governed by *to*. Rule 11.
delicacy	A noun, ſing. gov. by *give*, underſtood. Rule 9. —
to	
their	As before, agreeing with *ſentiments*.
ſentiments	A noun, plural, governed by *to*. Rule 11.
and	
tenderneſs	A noun, ſingular, connected by *and* to *delic* or governed by *give*, underſtood. Ru
to	
their	As before, agreeing with *paſſions*.
paſſions.	A noun, plural, gov. by *to*. Rule 11.

APPENDI

APPENDIX.

How do the Engliſh expreſs a Command?

BESIDES the uſe of *ſhall*, which may expreſs a command, the radical form of the verb is uſed for the ſame pur-ſe ; as, *go, come, write*. This is always addreſſed to a per-, and *thou*, ye or *you*, is ſuppoſed to be underſtood ; *go u, come ye*.

What other ſenſe is annexed to this form?

This mode of ſpeaking is uſed to pray and exhort ; as, Grant thy bleſſing." "Let thou thy ſervant depart in ace." In this ſenſe, and ſometimes, in giving commands, is employed ; as, "Do you prepare a dinner at two lock."

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Write thou, or	Write ye, or
Do thou write.	Do ye or you write.

Or thus, omitting the pronouns,
Write, or do write.*

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* It is ſurpriſing that Grammarians have made three perſons in imperative. Theſe expreſſions, *let me write*, *let him write*, *let write*, and *let them write*, appear to be the ſecond perſon ; for has the ſenſe of *permit* or *ſuffer* ; *permit me to write*, &c. We not addreſs *commands* or *exhortations* to ourſelves ; *let me write* ot an addreſs to myſelf, but to a ſecond perſon, *let thou me* ; is, *permit me*. Nor do we addreſs commands to a third perſon, pt by means of a ſecond. *Let him go*, is a command to a ſe- d perſon, or an order conveyed thro a ſecond to a third perſon. *us go*, is either an *exhortation* to a number, among whom the ker includes himſelf ; or a command ; as, *permit us to go*. In heſe caſes, the addreſs is made to the ſecond perſon.

A wiſh or prayer is alſo expreſſed by ſeveral of the aux ary ſigns, with the pronoun following ; and this either, w or without the interjection, Oh,

May he be reſtored to health ; or
O ! *May he* be reſtored !
Would he but ſpare my life !
O ! *Might I* behold my dear ſon !
Could he be reſtored to my longing eyes !

May and *might* here preſerve their uſual diſtinction. M ſuppoſes uncertainty, and therefore expreſſes a prayer. Mi ſuppoſes a thing which cannot probably happen, and the fore expreſſes a fruitleſs wiſh.

Theſe expreſſions correſpond, in ſome meaſure, with Greek optative.

How do the Engliſh expreſs condition *and* uncertainty.

By prefixing ſome *adverb* or *conjunction* to the verb. Ve ſubjoined to other verbs in conſtruction, or to adverbs and c junctions implying doubt and condition, are ſaid to be in *ſubjunctive mode.*

How is this mode formed ?

By combinations of words, ſimilar to thoſe in the indi tive, † as,

If I go—if he goes—&c.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

How are queſtions aſked in the Engliſh language ?

By placing the pronoun, or other nominative caſe, a the verb or firſt helping verb. Thus :

Have I ? Have we ?
Haſt thou ? } Have ye or you ?
have you ? }
Has he ? or } Have they ?
hath he ? }

Give an example in the ſeveral times.

Preſent Time.

Am I ? Will I ?
Can I ? Do I ?
May I ? Do I turn ?
Shall I ? Doſt thou turn ? &c. P

---

† It has been the practice of ſome writers to omit the inflectio the regular verbs in the preſent time of the ſubjunctive. *If I wri thou write, if he write.* But this form is generally an eliptica ture ; "if he *ſhould* or *ſhall* write." This appears to be the ge of the language, and moſt modern writers uſe the proper form the preſent : "If thou writeſt, if he writes."

Paſt Time.

Had I?
Was I?
Could I?
Might I?
Should I?

Would I?
Did I?
Did I turn?
Didſt thou turn? &c.

Had I been?
Could I have been?
Might I have been?
Should I have been?
Would I have been?

Muſt I have turned?
Might I have turned?
Could I have turned?
Should I have turned?
Would I have turned?

Future Time.

Shall I be?
Wilt thou be?

Shall I have been?
Wilt thou have been?*

How are negative ſentences formed, that is, how do we deny any thing?

By placing the word *not* after the verb, or firſt helper.

Examples, in Preſent Time.

I am not	We are not
Thou art not you are not	Ye or you are not
He is not	They are not

I have not
I do not
I may not
I can not

I turn not, or
I do not turn
I am not turning.

In Paſt Time.

I was not
I had not
I did not
I could not

I would not
I ſhould not
I might not

I have not been

I was not turned
I have not turned

---

* The firſt perſon, Will I be? will we be? is not uſed, ex-
ept by a miſtake. I have not ſet down all the perſons in the
nterrogative form, deeming one or two ſufficient. The learner
ay go thro the ſeveral perſons at the direction of the inſtruc-
r: As, *am I? art thou? is he? are ye or are you? are they?*
o in the other examples.

I had not been
I could not have been
I would not have been
I ſhould not have been
I might not have been

I had not turned
I did not turn
I could not turn
I would not turn
I ſhould not turn
I might not turn

I may not have turned
I can not have turned
I might not have turned
I would not have turned
I could not have turned
I ſhould not have turned.

In Future Time.

I ſhall not be
I will not be
I ſhall not have been
You will not have been

I ſhall not turn
I will not turn
I ſhall not have turned
You will not have turned.

How do the Engliſh aſk queſtions in the negative?

In this manner, place the nominative after the verb firſt helper, and the *not* immediately after the nominative.

Examples.

Am I not?
Was I not?
Have I not?
Had I not?
Can I not?
May I not?

Will I not?
Shall I not?
Could I not?
Would I not?
Should I not?

Have I not been turned?
Had I not been turned?
Could I not have been turned?
Would I not have been turned?
Should I not have been turned?
Might I not have been turned?
Muſt I not have been turned?

When do the Engliſh aſk queſtions in the negative form?

When the ſpeaker is ſuppoſed to be acquainted with the fact enquired for, or to ſuſpect it; and to aſk for a conceſſion or aſſurance of the fact. It ſeems in an argument, to be a modeſt way of aſſerting a fact. But when the enquirer is ſuppoſed to be unacquainted with the fact, he ought not to aſk the queſtion in the negative form. Thus :

Does it rain? aſks for information.

Does it not rain? implies that the ſpeaker ſuppoſes it to rain.

"Do you believe the exiſtence of a Supreme Being?" would be a very improper queſtion to aſk of a known chriſtian.

"Do you not believe the exiſtence of a Supreme Being?" may be aſked of any perſon with propriety ; eſpecially in an argument.

Where is the negation to be placed?

After the nominative caſe ; thus :

Do I *not* write? Has he *not* written?
Does he *not* write? Should he *not* be writing?

In the vulgar ſtyle, the negation is placed before the nominative, and contracted thus : *Did'nt I write? don't he write? can't he write?* But this ſhould not be imitated.

Note. The anſwer to a negative interrogative ſentence, if the fact is conceded, is expreſſed by the affirmative *yes*, or a correſpondent verb. If the ſpeaker intends to deny the fact, he anſwers by the negative *no* ; or a correſpondent verb. It is ſaid by ſome men of erudition, that the negative form of queſtioning is not philoſophically neceſſary ; but this is not material ; as, in our language, it certainly has a diſtinct and important meaning.

In teaching the Engliſh verbs, eſpecially to foreigners, the learner ſhould be directed to draw out on paper the forms of ſeveral verbs at large; not only in the affirmative form, but in the negative and interrogative, and in the combined form of both. This ſhould be particularly attended to in the irregulars at large, with a view to underſtand the proper combinations of the auxiliary ſigns, with the radical verb and its participles.

The defective verb *ought* is thus varied, in the preſent and paſt time.

I ought	We ought
Thou oughteſt	Ye or you ought
He ought	They ought

Ought has no participle.

Let is thus varied in the preſent time.

I let

I let	We let
Thou letteſt	Ye or you let
He letteth or lets	They let

It has no other variation ; but it has all tenſes and participles.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

All Engliſh verbs that make the paſt time and particip in *ed*, are accounted regular : All that vary from this ru may be called irregular. I ſhall rank the whole of our irregular verbs under three heads ; firſt thoſe that make th preſent tenſe, paſt and participle all alike : as,

Preſent.	*Paſt.*	*Participle.*
Hurt	Hurt	Hurt

Of this kind are the following : beat, burſt, caſt, coſt, cu heat, hit, knit, let, put, read, rent, rid, ſet, ſhed, ſlit, ſpli ſpread, thruſt, wet.

The addition of *ed* after *d* or *t*, would render the ſound that word diſagreeable ; as, *hitted*, *putted*, &c. for which reaſon it is omitted.

Note. *Beat* ſometimes makes *beaten* in the participle ; a *heat*, *heated*.

2. Thoſe that make the paſt time and participle alike, b different from the preſent time ; as the following :

Preſent.	*Paſt and Part.*	*Preſent.*	*Paſt and Par*
Awake	Awoke	dwell	dwelt
abide	abode	feed	fed
be	been	feel	felt
behold	beheld	fight	fought
bind	bound	find	found
bleed	bled	flee	fled
breed	bred	fling	flung
bring	brought	geld	gelt or geld
build	built or builded	bend	bent
buy	bought	unbend	unbent
catch	caught	bereave	bereſt
creep	crept	beſeech	beſought
deal	dealt	leap	leapt or leap
dig	dug	lend	lent
dream	dreamt	loſe	loſt
drink	drank	make	made

Preſent.	*Paſt and Part.*	*Preſent.*	*Paſt and Part.*
mean	meant	have	had
meet	met	hear	heard
pay	paid	keep	kept
rend	rent	lay	laid
ay	ſaid	lead	led
eek	ſought	leave	left
ell	ſold	ſtick	ſtuck
end	ſent	ſting	ſtung
hoot	ſhot	ſweep	ſwept
leep	ſlept	ſweat	ſwet
ling	ſlung	teach	taught
mell	ſmelt	tell	told
pend	ſpent	think	thought
pin	ſpun	weep	wept
and	ſtood	wind	wound
ild	gilt or gilded	work	wrought or worked
ird	girt or girded	wring	wrung
rind	ground	win	won
ang	hung or hanged		

3, Thoſe that have the preſent, paſt and participle all ifferent ; as the following :

Preſent Tenſe.	*Paſt.*	*Participle.*
Bear	bore or bare	borne or born
begin	began	begun
bid	bade or bid	bidden
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
chide	chid	chidden
chooſe	choſe	choſen
cleave	clove or clave	cloven or cleft
come	came	come
crow	crew	crowed
dare	durſt	dared
die	died	dead
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drive	drove	driven

Preſent.	*Paſt.*	*Participle.*
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
forſake	forſook	forſaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hew	hewed	hewn
hide	hid	hidden
hold	held	held or holden
know	knew	known
lade	laden	loaded or loaden
ly or lie	lay	lain
mow	mowed	mown
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang or rung	rung
riſe	roſe	riſen
run	ran	run
ſee	ſaw	ſeen
ſaw	ſawed	ſawn
ſeeth	ſod	ſodden
ſhave	ſhaved	ſhaven or ſhaved
ſhake	ſhook	ſhaken
ſhear	ſheared	ſhorn or ſheared
ſtrew	ſtrewed	ſtrewn
	alſo	
ſtrow	ſtrowed	ſtrown
ſhew	ſhewed	ſhewn
	alſo	
ſhow	ſhowed	ſhown
ſhrink	ſhrank or ſhrunk	ſhrunk
ſing	ſang or ſung	ſung
ſink	ſank or ſunk	ſunk
ſit	ſat	ſitten
ſlay	ſlew	ſlain
ſlide	ſlid	ſlidden
ſmite	ſmote	ſmitten

ſow

Preſent.	*Paſt.*	*Participle.*
ſow	ſowed	ſown
ſpeak	ſpoke	ſpoken
ſpring	ſprang or ſprung	ſprung
ſteal	ſtole	ſtolen
ſtink	ſtank or ſtunk	ſtunk
ſtrike	ſtruck	ſtruck
ſpit	ſpit	ſpitten
ſtrive	ſtrove	ſtriven
ſwear	ſwore	ſworn
ſwell	ſwelled	ſwollen or ſwelled
ſwing	ſwang or ſwung	ſwung
ſwim	ſwam or ſwum	ſwum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
thrive	throve	thriven
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
write	wrote	written
wax	waxed	waxen

NOTES.

PLURAL NUMBER.

SOME men write *genius's*, *idea's*, for the plural. But this ſeems not ſo correct as *geniuſſes*, *ideas*.

It is diſputed, whether two *handſful*, or two *handfuls* is the moſt correct expreſſion. It appears to me as plain a caſe as *two ſhoemakers*, or *two ſhoes maker*. The word handful is a noun, the name of a certain quantity, and the ſign of the plural ought to be added to the termination. *Two handſful* does not convey the idea; it means two ſeparate *hands* filled; whereas *two handfuls* means twice the quantity that the hand will contain, which is our meaning when we uſe the word.

We uſually ſay, "*the Miſs Smiths*;" "*the Miſſes Smiths*," is more accurate.

We ſay, *twelve foot*, *thirty pounds*; and this ſeems to be an eſtabliſhed idiom of the language. It is remarked by *Lhuyd*, that this alſo is the invariable practice in the Corniſh dialect, a branch of the old Britiſh language. So alſo we ſay *a hundred horſe, theſe are a good apple.* The word *folk* anciently ſignified a number, *theſe folk.* But it is now uſed in the plural, *folks. Enough* was once uſed in the ſingular only ; *enow* in the plural is ſtill uſed by ſome writers, particularly the Scotch; but *enough* is now generally uſed in both numbers.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

Many people uſe *wives* in the plural, when they ſhould uſe *wife's,* in the poſſeſſive. " It is at my *wives* diſpoſal," ought to be, *wife's diſpoſal.*

It is queſtioned whether, *at Mr. Bell's the bookſeller's,* or *at Mr. Bell's the bookſeller,* or *at Mr. Bell the bookſeller's,* is the moſt elegant expreſſion. The firſt is clearly the moſt correct and agreeable ; except two words follow ; as, *at Mr. Bell's the bookſeller's and ſtationer's* : in which caſe, I ſhould vary the expreſſion, *at the ſtore of Mr. Bell the bookſeller and ſtationer.*

We uſe *latter* and *later* in different ſenſes. *Latter* refers to *time* and *place* ; *later* to *time* only. *Prieſtley.*

Older and *oldeſt* are uſed in a ſenſe different from *elder* and *eldeſt.* *Older* and *oldeſt* refer to priority of time only ; *elder* and *eldeſt* are uſed to expreſs precedency of rank or privilege.

We often uſe the ſuperlative for the comparative, *the ſtrongeſt of the two.* This is not ſo correct as *ſtronger.*

Plenty for *plentiful* is become ſo frequent as perhaps to claim a place among Engliſh adjectives. *Wheat is plenty.*

PRONOUNS.

Pronouns are ſometimes uſed without any antecedent ; but in ſuch caſes, the antecedent is eaſily ſuggeſted by the mind. " *How far is it to ſuch a place ?*" " *How far do you call it ?*" That is, the diſtance. *Who is it ? Who is the perſon ?*

Sometimes *it* ſeems to coaleſce with the verb in ſenſe. " The king *carried it* with a high hand." *Parliam. hiſt.*

We vulgarly ſay, *Will you ſmoke it ?*

What is vulgarly uſed for *that.* " I am not ſatisfied but *what* it was beſt."

It is very common to hear theſe phraſes, *it is me*, *it was him*. Theſe appear not ſtrictly grammatical, but have ſuch a prevalence in Engliſh, and in other modern languages derived from the ſame ſource, it inclines me to think, that there may be reaſons for them, which are not now underſtood. The French ſay, *c'eſt moi*, *c'eſt lui*, phraſes preciſely anſwering to ours, *it is me*, *it is him*. In ſome inſtances, theſe cannot well be avoided. See *Prieſtley* on Pronouns.

The relative *who*, in this, and ſimilar phraſes, *who do you ſpeak to?* muſt perhaps be admitted as an anomaly. It is the invariable practice to uſe *who*, except among people who are fettered by grammatical rules. In ſpite of rules, *who is ſhe married to?* is more agreeable than *whom* is ſhe married to?

VERB.

We ſay, *what ails him?* but ſeldom *he ails a fever*, or other diſeaſe.

Owing and *wanting* are uſed in a paſſive ſenſe. *What is wanting? A debt is owing to me*, are eſtabliſhed phraſes.

We ſay *a man is well read in law*; *he was offered ſo much for a thing*, where the ſubject and object ſeem to have changed places; for the meaning, is, *law is well read*; *ſo much was offered*, &c. This inverſion may be allowable, where it is not attended with obſcurity.

On the uſe of auxiliary verbs, Dr. *Prieſtley* has this criticiſm, "By ſtudying conciſeneſs, we are apt to drop the auxiliary, *to have*, though the ſenſe relate to paſt time. *I found him better than I expected to find him*. In this caſe analogy ſeems to require that we ſay, *I expected to have found him*: that is, *to have found him* there." This is a great error, and for the reaſon which he immediately aſſigns, that is, "*the time paſt is ſufficiently indicated by the former part of the ſentence*." The truth is, the time is aſcertained by the firſt verb, *I expected*, which carries the mind back to the time; then to uſe another verb in time paſt, is to carry the mind back to a time preceding the exiſtence of my expectations. He gives an example from *Hume*, which he ſays, is certainly faulty. "Theſe proſecutions of William *ſeem to be* the moſt iniquitous," &c. It is faulty, not becauſe both verbs are not in time paſt, but becauſe neither of them is paſt time; *ſeem to have been*, or *ſeemed to be*, would have been correct; but *ſeemed to have been*, would not have been grammatical. His remarks on this point *ſeem to have been* made with leſs accuracy of judgment, than we obſerve in moſt of his writings.

Sometimes verbs after *than* have no apparent nominative, "He ſpeaks with more ſpirit *than is* uſual." This is an elliptical form of expreſſion, and the verb might be omitted; but it is often uſed without creating ambiguity.

Theſe expreſſions, *I had rather*, *you had better*, *I had as lief*, ſeem not grammatical. Whether *had* is, in theſe phraſes, a corruption of *would*, or an old peculiarity, its general uſe, both in books and ſpeech, undoubtedly entitle it to an eſtabliſhment in grammar. *Rather* is the comparative of the old word *rathe*, *prompt*, *willing*. This, as well as *better* and *lief*, were originally nouns, and might, with propriety, follow *have*, *had*, *rather*, i. e. *had more promptneſs*, or *readineſs*. It is probable, that if we go far enough into antiquity, we ſhould find theſe phraſes might be reſolved on grammatical principles. Beſides, *would* will not always ſupply the place of *had*. *You would better ſtay*, is not the ſenſe of *you had better ſtay*.

There is ſomething ſingular in the uſe of the verbs *need* and *dare*, in the third perſon. When they ſtand as tranſitive verbs, and are followed by ſome noun or pronoun, they have the regular perſonal termination; as, *he needs a guide*; *he dares me to enter the liſt*. But when they are immediately followed by another verb in the infinitive, the perſonal termination is dropped, and theſe verbs are to be conſidered as auxiliaries: Thus, *he need not go*; *he dare not ſtay*; where *need* and *dare* ſtand exactly upon the footing of *may* and *can*. This difference in the uſe of theſe words has not before been obſerved, yet is as well eſtabliſhed as any peculiarity in the language, and inſenſibly made in practice from the beſt writers to the humbleſt cottagers. *He dares not go*; *he needs not go*, are as awkward and unwarrantable as *he mays not*, or *cans not go*.

The verb *needs* is often uſed in another manner, equally ſingular; as in this ſentence: "In ſuch artificial things there *needs* no other deſcription, than to name them by their uſual names." *Bacon's Abridg.* vol. 4. 24. This is good

Engliſh, but what is the nominative to *needs?* Perhaps this phraſe might grow out of *need is*; as *needs* in the phraſe, *he muſt needs*, is evidently a contraction of *need is*. At any rate, it is a well eſtabliſhed mode of expreſſion, *there needs one, there needs none*, &c. and it muſt be admitted as an idiomatic irregularity.

Another ſingularity in the uſe of this verb is obſervable. When it is uſed as a tranſitive or principal verb, it has a regular preterit; as, *he had all the evidence he needed*. But when it ſtands on the footing of an auxiliary, it has not the uſual inflections for the paſt time; as, "Perhaps the party had other evidence, and *need* not have put the cauſe on this point." *Salkeld's Reports*, 1. 289. Theſe diſtinctions are eſtabliſhed in books as well as ſpeaking.

When *need* is uſed as a principal verb, the ſign of the infinitive is prefixed to a following verb; as, *he needed to have* ſome ſupport. So that as a *principal* verb, it is regular in its variations; but as an *auxiliary*, it has no variation, unleſs with *thou* in the ſecond perſon.

The uſe of *miſtaken* is equally ſingular. When applied to *perſons* it is ſynonimous with *wrong* or *erroneous*. This is *almoſt*, or *quite univerſally* underſtood to be its meaning; and this common underſtanding conſtitutes its true ſignification, which no man has a right to diſpute or attempt to change. But when applied to *things*, it is always uſed in a paſſive ſenſe, equivalent to *miſunderſtood*. *I am miſtaken, you are miſ-aken,* mean, *I am wrong, you are wrong*; but *the nature of a hing is miſtaken*, means *its nature is miſunderſtood*.

Prepositions, Adverbs *and* Conjunctions.

While is commonly conſidered as an adverb; but very er-oneouſly. It is a noun ſignifying *time*. *It is worth while*, r *worth his while*; i. e. *worth his time*. *How* is ſometimes ſed as implying negation "*Let us take care how we ſin*," i. . that we do not ſin. But this is not very correct, and a very nneceſſary mode of ſpeaking. *Above* is often uſed as an djective—*the above remarks*. *Then* is ſometimes uſed in the me manner, *the then miniſtry*. Theſe phraſes ſeem uncouth, ut perhaps were formerly conſidered as correct.

A is often uſed as equivalent to *per* in Latin. *Four ſhillings a buſhel.* Philoſophical principles teach us to ſupply *for* to make the ſentence complete; but it does not appear that *for* was ever uſed in theſe caſes. It is probable from the progreſs of language, and from old Engliſh writers, that it is a contraction of *one, four ſhillings one buſhel.* Some grammarians, ignorant of the idioms of their own tongue, and fond of adjuſting every thing by Roman rules, have ſubſtituted the Latin *per.* Thus we ſee every day, *per week, per quarter, per yard, per buſhel,* and a multitude of other *pers,* the offſpring of ignorance and pedantry, ſoiſted into the language, and diſinheriting our own legitimate children. The Engliſh is *a week, a yard, a day,* &c. and *a day* is as correct in Engliſh, as *per diem* is in Latin.

Lowth condemns this expreſſion, " In one hour *is* ſo great *riches* come to nought." But this word was formerly in the ſingular number. Chaucer uſes *richeſſe* almoſt invariably in the ſingular, and makes the plural *richeſſes.*

Many was formerly uſed in the ſingular number—

" Againſt ſo manye *foo*"—that is, *foe.*

Hence the propriety of the phraſe, *many a man.*

Lowth alſo reprobates this form of expreſſion, *it is theſe, it is they.* I believe theſe phraſes may be defended on philoſophical principles; *theſe* and *they* collectively forming an agent or ſubject, repreſented by *it.* At any rate, the idiom is ſo well eſtabliſhed, and the other conſtruction is ſo awkward, that an Engliſh ear cannot conſent to the correction—*they are they.* No Frenchman diſputes the propriety of *ce ſont eux, ce ſont elles*—phraſes which are as unphiloſophical as ours, *it is theſe* or *they.* And in ſpite of great names, theſe phraſes will ſtill be uſed as good Engliſh.

Our anceſtors conſidered *aſhes* as ſingular. " The *aſhes* of an heifer—*ſanctifieth* to the purifying of the fleſh." *Sanctifieth* is not a miſtake—the tranſlators of the Bible did not make ſuch blunders. But in modern times, *aſhes* is rather uſed as a plural.

Averſe and *averſion,* Lowth ſays, ſeem to require *from* and not admit *to.* He inclines much to admit Latin idioms rather than Engliſh. The true force and propriety of the Engliſh particles are known only by their uſe. *To* is generally uſed after theſe words—it is much the moſt agreeable, and on examining ſing the original meaning of *to*, it is found to be the moſt correct. A Latiniſt may reliſh *averſe from*, but an Engliſh ear is not eaſily reconciled to the expreſſion.

Compare is followed by *with* or *to*. *With* is uſed, when two objects are compared which are together, and exhibited at a ſingle view. *To* is ſometimes uſed, when objects are abſent from each other. Or perhaps this is the difference; *with* is uſed when two things are of the ſame kind, and alike in the capital figure or properties; *to*, when a compariſon is inſtituted *de novo*, or between things that are not aſſociated in idea. Of the former this will ſerve as an example; "He *compared* one picture *with* another." Of the latter, "Homer *compares* a croud of people *to* a ſwarm of bees."

The adjectives *long*, *broad*, *thick*, *deep*, *high*, *old*, *diſtant*, *ſtrong*, may follow the nouns which they qualify, as, *five feet long*, *two feet broad*, *four feet thick*, *one yard deep*, *twenty feet high*, *ſeven years old*, *three miles diſtant*, *four thouſand ſtrong*.

[*Note*. Some writers, affecting correctneſs, write *ever ſo*, inſtead of *never ſo*, the ancient phraſe; as let it be *ever ſo* little. This is an error. The true phraſe is, *never ſo* little. "If a neighbor offended them *never ſo* little." The meaning and conſtruction is, "if a neighbor offended them *ſo little* as he *never* before offended them." This phraſe was uſed by all good writers, till ſince the days of Addiſon and Swift; when it became offenſive to ſome ſuperficial critics, who rejected, without underſtanding it.]

[It is diſputed whether *cotemporary* or *contemporary* is to be preferred. The eaſe of pronunciation, which is the guide in this caſe, always requires cotemporary.]

CRITICAL NOTES, *by* DR. LOWTH.

(1) "AND I perſecuted this way unto *the* death." Acts xxi. 4. The apoſtle does not mean any particular ſort of death, but death in general: the definite article therefore is improperly uſed. It ought to be *unto death*, without any article, agreeable to the original. See alſo 2 Chron. xxxii. 24.

“ When He, the ſpirit of truth is come, he will guide you into *all truth*.” John xvi. 13. That is, according to this tranſlation, into all truth whatſoever, into truth of all kinds; very different from the meaning of the Evangeliſt, and from the original, into *all the truth*; that is, into all evangelical truth.”

“ Truly this was *the* Son of God,” Mat. xxvii. 54. and Mark xv. 39. This tranſlation ſuppoſes that the Roman Centurion had a proper and adequate notion of the character of Jeſus, as the Son of God in a peculiar and incommunicable ſenſe: whereas, it is probable, both from the circumſtances of hiſtory, and from the expreſſion of the original, (*a* Son of God, or of *a* God, not *the* Son) that he only meant to acknowledge him to be an extraordinary perſon, and more than a mere man; according to his own notion of Sons of Gods in the Pagan theology. This is alſo more agreeable to St. Luke's account of the ſame confeſſion of the Centurion. “ Certainly this was a righteous man;” not the Juſt One. The ſame may be obſerved of Nebuchadnezzar's words, Dan. iii. 25, “ and the form of the fourth is like *the* Son of God;” it ought to be expreſſed by the indefinite article, like *a* Son of God, as Theodotion very properly renders it; that is, like an angel; according to Nebuchadnezzar's own account of it in the 28th verſe: “ Bleſſed be God, who hath ſent his *angel* and delivered his ſervants.” See alſo Luke xix. 9.

“ Who breaks a butterfly upon *a* wheel?” Pope.

It ought to be *the* wheel; uſed as an inſtrument for the particular purpoſe of torturing criminals; as Shakeſpear,

“ Let them pull all about mine ears; preſent me
Death on *the* wheel, or at wild horſes heels.”

“ God Almighty hath given reaſon to *a* man to be a light unto him.” Hobbes, Elements of Law, Part I. chap. v. 12. It ſhould rather be, “ to man, in general.”

(2) The word *many* is taken collectively as a ſubſtantive.

“ O thou fond *many*! with what loud applauſe
Did'ſt thou beat heav'n with bleſſing Bolingbroke,
Before he was what thou wouldſt have him be?”
Shakeſpear, 2 Hen. IV.

But it will be hard to reconcile to any grammatical pro-

priety the following phraſe: "*Many one* there *be*, that ſay of my ſoul, There is no help for him in his God."
Pſ. iii. 2.

"*How many a meſſage* would he ſend?"
Swift, verſes on his own death.

"He would ſend *many a meſſage*," is right: but the queſtion *how* ſeems to deſtroy the unity, or collective nature of the idea; and therefore it ought to have been expreſſed, if the meaſure would have allowed of it, without the article, in the plural number; "*how many meſſages*."

(3) "There were ſlain of them upon *a* three thouſand men;" that is, to the number of three thouſand. 1 Mac. iv. 15. "About *an* eight days;" that is, a ſpace of eight days. Luke ix. 28. But the expreſſion is obſolete, or at leaſt vulgar; and we may add likewiſe, improper; for neither of theſe numbers has been reduced by uſe and convenience into one collective and compact idea, like *a hundred* and *a thouſand*; each of which, like *a dozen*, or *a ſcore*, we are accuſtomed equally to conſider on certain occaſions as a ſimple unity.

(4) "*Chriſt his* ſake," in our liturgy, is a miſtake either of the printers or of the compilers. "Nevertheleſs Aſa *his* heart was perfect with the Lord." 1 Kings, xv. 14. "To ſee whether Mordecai *his* matters would ſtand." Eſther, iii. 4.

(5) "It is very probable that this convocation was called, to clear ſome doubt, that King James might have had about the lawfulneſs of the Hollanders *their* throwing off the monarchy of Spain, and *their* withdrawing for good and all, their allegiance to that crown." Wellwood's Memoirs, p. 31, 6th edition. In this ſentence, the pronominal adjective *their* is twice improperly added, the poſſeſſive caſe being ſufficiently expreſſed without it.

(6) Some writers have uſed *ye* as the objective caſe plural of the pronoun of the ſecond perſon, very improperly, and ungrammatically.

"The more ſhame for *ye*: holy men I thought *ye*."
Shakeſpear, Hen. VIII.

"But tyrants dread *ye*, leſt your juſt decree,
Transfer the pow'r, and ſet the people free." Prior.

“ His wrath, which one day will deſtroy *ye* both.”
Milton, P. L. ii. 734.

Milton uſes the ſame manner of expreſſion in a few other places of his Paradiſe Loſt, and more frequently in his Poems. It may perhaps be allowed in the Comic and Burleſque ſtyle, which often imitates a vulgar and incorrect pronunciation: as, “ By the Lord I knew *ye*, as well as he that made *ye*.” Shakeſpear, 1 Henry IV. But in the ſerious and ſolemn ſtyle, no authority is ſufficient to juſtify ſo manifeſt a ſoleciſm.

The ſingular and plural form ſeem to be confounded in the following ſentence: “ Paſs *ye* away, *thou* inhabitants of Sophir.” Micah i. 11.

(7) *His ſelf* and *their ſelves* were formerly in uſe, even in the objective caſe after a prepoſition: “ Every of us, each for *his ſelf*, labored how to recover him.” Sidney. “ That they would willingly, and of *their ſelves*, endeavor to keep a perpetual chaſtity.” Stat. 2 and 3, Ed. VI. ch. 21.

(8) Double comparatives and ſuperlatives are improper:

“——The Duke of Milan,
And his *more braver* daughter could control thee.”
Shakeſpear, Tempeſt.

“ After the *moſt ſtraiteſt* ſect of our religion, I lived a Phariſee.” Acts xxvi. 5. So likewiſe adjectives, that have in themſelves a ſuperlative ſignification, admit not properly the ſuperlative form ſuperadded: “ Whoſoever of you will be *chiefeſt*, ſhall be ſervant of all.” Mark x. 44. “ One of the firſt and *chiefeſt* inſtances of prudence.” Atterbury, Serm. IV. “ While the *extremeſt* parts of earth were meditating a ſubmiſſion.” Ibid. I. 4.

“ But firſt and *chiefeſt* with thee bring
Him, that yon ſoars on golden wing,
Guiding the fiery wheeled-throne,
The Cherub contemplation.” Milton Il. Penſeroſo.

“ That on the ſea's *extremeſt* border ſtood,”
Addiſon's Travels.

(9) *Worſer* is barbarous.

“ Changed to a *worſer* ſhape thou canſt not be.”
Shakeſpear, 1 Hen. VI.

“ A

"A dreadful quiet felt, and *worſer* far
Than arms, a ſullen interval of war." Dryden.

(10) *Thou* in the polite, and even in the familiar ſtyle, is diſuſed, and the plural *you* is employed inſtead of it; we ſay, *you have*, not *thou haſt*. On the contrary the ſolemn ſtyle admits not of *you* for a ſingle perſon. This hath led Mr. Pope into a great impropriety in the beginning of his Meſſiah:

——"O *thou* my voice inſpire,
Who *touch'd* Iſaiah's hallow'd lips with fire!"

The ſolemnity of the ſtyle would not admit of *you* for *thou* in the pronoun; nor the meaſure of the verſe *touchedſt*, or *didſt touch*, in the verb, as it indiſpenſably ought to be in the one, or the other of theſe two forms; *you* who *touched*, or *thou* who *touchedſt*, or *didſt touch*.

(11) *Hath* properly belongs to the ſerious and ſolemn ſtyle; *has* to the familiar. The ſame may be obſerved of *doth* and *does*.

"But confounded with thy art,
Inquires her name, that *has* her heart." Waller.
"The unwearied ſun from day to day
Does his Creator's power diſplay." Addiſon.

The nature of the ſtyle, as well as the harmony of the verſe, ſeems to require in theſe places *hath* and *doth*.

(12) The auxiliary verb *will* is always formed in the ſecond and third perſons ſingular *wilt* and *will*; but the verb *to will*, not being an auxiliary, is formed regularly; I *will*, thou *willeſt*, he *willeth* or *wills*. "Thou that art the author and beſtower of life, canſt doubtleſs reſtore it if thou *will'ſt*, and when thou *will'ſt*; but whether thou *will'ſt* (wilt) pleaſe to reſtore it, or not, that thou alone knoweſt." Atterbury, Serm. I. 7.

(13) I doubt much of the propriety of the following examples; "The rules of our holy religion, from which we *are* infinitely *ſwerved*." Tilotſon, vol. i. Serm. 27. "The whole obligation of that law and covenant, which God made with the Jews, *was* alſo *ceaſed*." Ibid. vol. ii. Serm. 52. "Whoſe number *was* now *amounted* to three hundred." Swift's conteſt and diſſentions, chap. iii. "This mareſchal upon ſome diſcontent, *was entered* into a conſpiracy againſt his maſter." Adddiſon, Freeholder, No. 31. Neuter verbs are ſometimes

ployed very improperly as actives: "Go *flee thee* away into the land of Judah." Amos vii. 12. "I think it by no means a fit and decent thing to *vie charities*, and erect the reputation of one upon the ruins of another." Atterbury, Serm. I. 2. "So many learned men, that have ſpent their whole time and pains to *agree* the ſacred with the profane chronology." Sir William Temple, Works, fol. vol. p. 296.

"How would *the gods* my righteous *toils ſucceed*?"
Pope, Odyſſ. xiv. 447.
——"If *Jove this arm ſucceed*."
Ibid. xxi, 219.

And active verbs are as improperly made neuter: as "I muſt *premiſe* with three circumſtances." Swift, Q. Anne's, Laſt Miniſtry, chap. 2. "Thoſe that think to *ingratiate* with him by calumniating me." Bentley, Diſſert. on Phalaris, p. 159.

(14) *Riſe*, with *i* ſhort, hath been improperly uſed as the paſt time of this verb. "That form of the firſt or primogenial earth, which *riſe* immediately out of chaos, was not the ſame, nor like to that of the preſent earth." Burnet's Theory of the Earth, B. I. chap. 4. "If we hold faſt to that ſcripture concluſion, that all mankind *riſe* from one head." Ibid. B. II. chap. 7.

(15) Frequent miſtakes are made in the formation of the participle of the verb *ſit*. The analogy plainly requires *ſitten*; which was formerly in uſe: "The army having *ſitten* there ſo long."—"Which was enough to make him ſtir, that would not have *ſitten* ſtill, though Hannibal had been quiet." Raleigh. "That no parliament ſhould be diſſolved, till it had *ſitten* five months." Hobbes, Hiſt. of Civil Wars, p. 257. But it is now almoſt wholly diſuſed, the form of the paſt time *ſat*, having taken its place. "The court *was ſat*, before Sir Roger came." Addiſon, Spect. No. 122. Dr. Middleton hath, with great propriety, reſtored the true participle: "To have *ſitten* on the heads of the apoſtles: to have *ſitten* upon each of them." Works. vol. ii. p. 30.

(16) The neuter verb *lie* is frequently confounded with the verb active *to lay*, (that is, to *put* or *place*;) which is regular, and has in the paſt time and participle *layed* or *laid*.

"For him, through hoſtile camps I bent my way,

For him, thus proſtrate at thy feet I *lay*;
Large gifts proportioned to thy wrath I bear."
Pope, Iliad xxiv. 622.

Here *lay* is evidently uſed for the preſent time, inſtead of *lie*.

(17) *Overflown* uſed for *overflowed*.

"For rhyme in Greece or Rome was never known,
Till by barbarian deluges *o'erflown*." Roſcommon, Eſſay.

"Do not the Nile and the Niger make yearly inundations in our days, as they have formerly done? And are not the countries ſo *overflown* ſtill ſituate between the tropicks?"
Bentley's Sermons.

"Thus oft by mariners are ſhown
Earl Goodwin's caſtles *overflown*."——Swift.

Here the participle of the irregular verb *to fly*, is confounded with that of the regular verb *to flow*. It ought to be in all theſe places *overflowed*.

(18) *Improper uſe of the paſt time for the participle.*

"He would *have ſpoke*."——Milton, P. L. x. 517.

"Words *interwove* with ſighs found out their way."
P. L. i. 621.

"Thoſe kings and potentates who *have ſtrove*."
Eiconoclaſt. xvii.

"And to his faithful ſervant *hath* in place
Bore witneſs gloriouſly."—Samſon Ag. ver. 1752.

"And envious darkneſs, ere they could return,
Had ſtole them from me."———Comus, ver. 195.

Here it is obſervable, that the author's MS. and the firſt edition, have it *ſtolen*.

"And in triumph *had rode*."——P. R. iii. 36.

—"I *have choſe*
This perfect man."———P. R. i. 165.

"The fragrant briar *was wove* between."
Dryden, Fables.

"I will ſcarce think you *have ſwam* in a Gondola."
Shakeſpear, As you like it.

"Then finiſh what you *have began*,
But ſcribble faſter, if you can."
Dryden, Poems, Vol. II. p. 172.

"And now the years a numerous train *have ran*;
The blooming boy has ripened into man."
Pope's Odyſſ. xi. 555.

“ *Have ſprang.*”——Atterbury, Serm. I. 4.

“ *Had ſpake—Had began.*”—Clarendon, Contin. Hiſt. p. 40, and 120.

“ The men *begun* to embelliſh themſelves.”
Addiſon, Spect. No. 434.

“ Rapt into future times the bard *begun.*”
Pope, Meſſiah.

And without the neceſſity of rhyme:

“ A ſecond deluge learning thus *o'er run,*
And the Monks finiſh'd what the Goths *begun.*”
Eſſay on Criticiſm.

(19) The formation of adverbs in general with the comparative and ſuperlative terminations ſeem to be improper; at leaſt it is now become almoſt obſolete: as, “ Touching things which generally are received—we are *hardlieſt* able to bring ſuch proof of their certainty, as may ſatisfy gainſayers.” Hooker, B. V. 2. “ Was the *eaſier* perſuaded.” Raleigh. “ That he may the *ſtronglier* provide.” Hobbes, Life of Thucyd. “ The things *highlieſt* important to the growing age.” Shafteſbury, Letter to Moleſworth. “ The queſtion would not be, who loved himſelf, and who not; but who loved and ſerved himſelf the *righteſt*, and after the trueſt manner.” Id. Wit and Humour. It ought rather to be *moſt hardly, more eaſily, more ſtrongly, moſt highly, moſt right* or *moſt rightly*. But theſe comparative adverbs, however improper in proſe, are ſometimes allowable in poetry.

“ Scepter and pow'r thy giving, I aſſume;
And gladlier ſhall reſign.”——Milton, P. L. vi. 731.

(20) The conjunction *becauſe*, uſed to expreſs the motive or end, is obſolete; as, “ The multitude rebuked them, *becauſe* they ſhould hold their peace.” Matt. xx. 31. “ It is the caſe of ſome, to contrive falſe periods of buſineſs *becauſe* they may ſeem men of diſpatch.” Bacon, Eſſay xxv. We ſhould now make uſe of *that*.

(21) “ Scotland and *thee* did each in over live.”
Dryden, Poems, vol. II. p. 220.

“ We are alone; here's none but *thee* and I.”
Shakeſpear, 2 Hen. VI.

In

It ought, in both places, to be *thou*; the nominative caſe to the verb expreſſed or underſtood.

(22) “ But *thou* falſe Arcite, never *ſhall* obtain
Thy bad pretence.”——Dryden, Fables.

It ought to be *ſhalt*. The miſtake ſeems to ariſe from the confounding of *thou* and *you*.

“ Nor *thou* that flings me floundering from thy back.”
Parnel, Battle of Frogs and Mice, I. 123.

“ There's (there *are*) *two* or *three* of us have ſeen ſtrange ſights.”——Shakeſpear, Jul. Cæſ.

“ I have conſidered, *what have* (hath) been ſaid on both ſides in this controverſy.”——Tillotſon, Vol. I. Serm. 27.

“ One would think, there *was* more *Sophiſts* than one had a finger in this volume of letters.”——Bentley, Diſſert. on Socrates, Epiſtles, ſect. IX.

“ The *number* of the names together *were* about an hundred and twenty.” Acts I. 25. See alſo Job xiv. 5.

“ And Rebekah took goodly *raiment* of her eldeſt ſon Eſau, *which were* with her in the houſe, and put *them* upon Jacob her youngeſt ſon.” Gen. xxvii. 15.

(23) “ To *ſee* ſo many *to make* ſo little conſcience of ſo great a ſin.” Tillotſon. Serm. I. 22. “ It cannot but be a delightful ſpectacle to God and angels, to *ſee* a young perſon beſieged by powerful temptations on either ſide, *to acquit* himſelf gloriouſly, and reſolutely *to hold* out againſt the moſt violent aſſaults: to *behold* one in the prime and flower of his age, that is courted by pleaſures and honours, by the devil, and all the bewitching vanities of the world, *to reject* all theſe, and *to cleave* ſteadfaſtly unto God.” Ib. Serm. 54. The impropriety of the phraſes diſtinguiſhed by Italic characters is evident. See Matth. xv. 31.

(24) Matth. xxiii. 5. The following ſentences ſeem defective either in the conſtruction or the order of the words; “ Why do ye that, *which is not lawful to do* on the ſabbath days?—The ſhew-bread, *which is not lawful to eat*, but for the prieſts alone.” Luke vi. 2—4. The conſtruction may be ectified, by ſupplying *it*; “ which *it* is not lawful to do: which is not lawful to eat:” or the order of the words in this manner; “ *to do which, to eat which*, is not lawful;” where the infinitive

to do, to eat, does the office of the nominative caſe, and the relative *which* is in the objective caſe.

(25) " Here you may ſee, that viſions are *to dread*."

Dryden, Fable

" I am not like other men, *to envy* the talents I canno reach." Tale of a Tub, Preface. " Grammarians have denied, or at leaſt *doubted them to be* genuine." Congreve's Preface t Homer's Hymn to Venus. " That all our doings may be ordered by thy governance, *to do* always that is righteous in thy ſight." Liturgy. The infinitive in theſe places ſeems to b improperly uſed.

(26) " The burning lever *not deludes* his pains."

Dryden, Ovid. Metam. B. xii

" I hope, my Lord, ſaid he, I *not offend*."

Dryden Fab

Theſe examples make the impropriety of placing the adverb *not* before the verb very evident. Shakeſpear frequently places the negative before the verb;

" She *not denies* it."—Much ado.

—" For men
Can counſel, and give comfort to that grief,
Which they themſelves *not feel*."—Ibid.

It ſeems therefore as if this order of words had anciently been much in uſe, though now grown altogether obſolete.

(27) *Did* he *not fear* the Lord, and *beſought* the Lord, and the Lord *repented* him of the evil which he had pronounced againſt them? Jer. xxvi. 19. Here the interrogative and explicative forms are confounded. It ought to be, " did he not *fear* the Lord, and *beſeech* the Lord? and *did not* the Lord *repent* him of the evil?" " If a man have an hundred ſheep, and one of them be gone aſtray, *doth* he *not leave* the ninety and nine and *goeth* into the mountains, and *ſeeketh* that which is gone aſtray?" Mat. xviii. 12. It ought to be *go* and *ſeek*; that is *doth* he *not go* and *ſeek* that which is gone aſtray?

(28) " Let *each* eſteem other better than *themſelves*." Phil ii. 3. It ought to be *himſelf*. " It is requiſite that the language of an heroic poem ſhould be both perſpicuous and ſublime. In proportion as *either* of theſe two qualities *are* [is] wanting, the language is imperfect." Addiſon, Spect. No 285. " 'Tis obſervable, that every *one* of the letters *bear* da

after

fter his baniſhment ; and *contain* a complete narrative of all is ſtory afterwards." Bentley, Diſſert. on Themiſtocles' epi-les, Sect. ii. It ought to be *bears*, and *they contain*.

Either is often uſed improperly inſtead of *each* : as, " The ing of Iſrael, and Jehoſaphat king of Judah ſat *either* [*each*] of hem on his throne." 2 Chron. xvii. 9. " Nadab and Abihu, he ſons of Aaron, took *either* [each] of them his cenſer." Lev. . 1. See alſo 1 Kings, vii. 15. *Each* ſignifies *both* of them aken diſtinctly, or ſeparately : *either* properly ſignifies *only the ne, or the other*, of them, taken disjunctively. For which reaſon he like expreſſion in the following paſſages ſeems alſo impro-er : " They crucified two other with him, on *either* ſide one, nd Jeſus in the midſt." John xix, 18. " Of *either* ſide of the iver was there the tree of life." Rev. xxii. 2. See alſo 1 Kings, x. 19. " Propoſals for a truce between the ladies of *ither* party." Addiſon. Freeholder. Contents of No. 38.

(29) " Foraſmuch as it hath pleaſed Almighty God of his oodneſs to give you ſafe deliverance, and *hath preſerved* you in he great danger of childbirth :" Liturgy. The verb *hath reſerved*, hath here no nominative caſe ; for it cannot be pro-erly ſupplied by the preceding word, *God*, which is in the ob-ective caſe. It ought to be, " *and he hath preſerved* you ;" r rather, " *and to preſerve* you." Some of our beſt writers ave frequently fallen into this, which appears to me to be no mall inaccuracy.

(30) " *Which rule*, if it had been obſerved, a neighbouring rince would have wanted a great deal of that incenſe which as been offered up to him by the adorers." Atterbury, Serm. . 1. The pronoun *it* is here the nominative caſe to the verb *bſerved* ; and *which rule* is left by itſelf, a nominative caſe ithout any verb following it. This manner of expreſſion, owever improper, is very common. It ought to be, " If *this ule* had been obſerved, &c." " We have no better materials o compound the prieſthood of, than the maſs of mankind ; *hich*, corrupted as it is, thoſe who receive orders muſt have me vices to leave behind them, when they enter into the hurch " Swift, Sentiments of a church of Englandman.

(31) This is commonly ſaid, " I *only* ſpake three words :" hen the intention of the ſpeaker manifeſtly requires, " I ake *only* three words."

"Her body ſhaded with a ſlight cymarr,
Her boſom to the view was *only* bare."
Dryden, Cymon and Ipigh.

The ſenſe neceſſarily requires this order :
"Her boſom *only* to the view was bare."

(32) Examples of impropriety in the uſe of the prepoſition. "Your character, which I, or any other writer, may now value ourſelves *by* (upon) drawing." Swift, Letter on the Engliſh tongue. "You have beſtowed your favours *to* (upon the moſt deſerving perſons." Ibid. "Upon ſuch occaſion as fell *into* (under) their cognizance." Swift, Conteſts and Diſſentions,&c. chap. ii. "That variety of factions *into* (in) which we are ſtill engaged" Ibid. chap. v. "To reſtore myſelf *into* (to) the good graces of my fair critics." Dryden's Preface to Aureng. "Accuſed the miniſters *for* (of) betraying the Dutch." Swift, Four laſt years of the Queen, Book ii, "Ovid, whom you accuſe *for* (of) luxuriancy of verſe." Dryden, on Dram. Poeſy. "The people of England may congratulate *to* themſelves, that"——Dryden. "Something like this, has been reproached *to* Tacitus" Bolingbroke on Hiſtory, Vol I. p. 136. "He was made much *on* (of) at Argos." "He is ſo reſolved *of* (on) going to the Perſian court." Bentley, Diſſertations on Themiſtocles' Epiſtles, Section iii. "Neither the one nor the other ſhall make me ſwerve *out of* (from) the path, which I have traced to myſelf." Bolingbroke, Letter to Wyndham, p. 252.

"And virgins ſmil'd at what they bluſh'd before ;" What they bluſh'd (at.) Pope, Eſſay on Crit.

"They are now reconciled by a zeal for their cauſe, to what they could not be prompted (to) by a concern for their beauty." Addiſon, Spect. No. 81 : If policy can prevail *upon* (over) force." Addiſon, Travels, p. 62. "I do likewiſe diſſent *with* (from) the Examiner." Addiſon Whig Exam. No. 1. "Ye blind guides, *which* ſtrain *at* a gnat, and ſwallow a camel." Matt. xxiii. 24. "Which ſtrain *out*, or take a gnat *out* of the liquor by ſtraining it :" The impropriety of the prepoſition has wholly deſtroyed the meaning of the phraſe. Obſerve alſo, that the noun generally requires after it, the ſame prepoſition, as the verb from which it is formed : "It was perfectly in compliance *to* (with) ſome perſons, for whoſe opinion I have great deference." Swift, Pref. to Temple's

Memoirs. "Not from any perſonal hatred to them, but in juſtification *to* (of) the beſt of Queens." Swift, Examiner, No. 23. In the laſt example, the verb being tranſitive, and requiring the objective caſe, the noun formed from it, ſeems to require the poſſeſſive caſe, or its prepoſition after it. Or perhaps he meant to ſay, "in *juſtice* to the beſt of Queens."

(33) May not *me, the, him, her, us*, which in Saxon are the dative caſes of their reſpective pronouns, be conſidered as ſtill continuing ſuch in the Engliſh, and including, in their very form, the force of the prepoſitions *to* and *for?* There are certainly ſome other phraſes, which are to be reſolved in this manner: "Wo is *me* !" The phraſe is pure Saxon: "Wa is me:" *me* is the dative caſe: In Engliſh, with the prepoſition, *to me*. So, "*methinks*;" Saxon, "*me thinketh*." "*As us thoughte*:" Sir John Maundevylle. "Wo worth the day!" Ezek. xxx 2; that is, Wo be *to* the day. The word *worth* is not the adjective. but the Saxon verb *weorthan*, or *worthan*, *fieri, to be, to become*; which is often uſed by Chaucer, and is ſtill retained as an auxiliary verb in the German language.

(34) *That* hath been uſed in the ſame manner as including the relative *which*; but it is obſolete: as, "To conſider adviſedly of *that* is moved." Bacon, Eſſay xxii. "We ſpeak *that* we do know, and teſtify *that* we have ſeen." John iii. 11.

(35) "*Who* inſtead of going about doing good, *they* are perpetually intent upon doing miſchief." Tillotſon, Serm. I. 8. The nominative caſe *they*, in this ſentence, is ſuperfluous: It was expreſſed before in the relative *who*.

(36) "I am *the Lord that maketh* all things; *that ſtretcheth* forth the heavens alone:"—Iſaiah xliv, 24. Thus far is right: *the Lord* in the third perſon is the antecedent, and the verb agrees with the relative in the third perſon: "I am the Lord, *which Lord*, or *He that maketh* all things." It would have been equally right, if *I* had been made the antecedent, and the relative and the verb had ageed with it in the firſt perſon: "*I* am the Lord, *that make* all things." But when it follows, "*that ſpreadeth* abroad the earth by *myſelf*." there ariſes a confuſion of perſons, and manifeſt ſolecism.

"*Thou* great firſt cauſe, leaſt underſtood!
Who all my ſenſe *confin'd*,

No know but this, that *Thou art* good,
And that myſelf am blind :''
Yet *gave* me in this dark eſtate, &c.—Pope, Uni. Prayer.

It ought to be *confinedſt*, or *didſt confine : gaveſt*, or *didſt give*, &c. in the ſecond perſon.

(37) " Abuſe on all he lov'd, or lov'd him, ſpread."
Pope, Epiſt. to Arbuthnot.

That is, " all *whom* he lov'd, or *who* lov'd him." Or to make it more eaſy by ſupplying a relative, that has no variation of caſes, " all *that* he lov'd, or *that* lov'd him." " In the temper of mind he was then." Addiſon, Spect. No. 549. In theſe and the like phraſes, which are very common, there is an ellipſis both of the relative and the prepoſition ; which would have been much better ſupplied : " In the temper of mind *in which* he was then."

(38) The connective parts of ſentences are the moſt important of all, and require the greateſt care and attention ; for it is by theſe chiefly, that the train of thought, the courſe of reaſoning, and the whole progreſs of the mind, in continued diſcourſe of all kinds, is laid open ; and on the right uſe of theſe, the perſpicuity, that is, the firſt and greateſt beauty of ſtyle, principally depends. Relatives and conjunctions, are the inſtruments of connection in diſcourſe : It may be of uſe to point out ſome of the moſt common inaccuracies, that writers are apt to fall into with reſpect to them, and a few examples of faults, may, perhaps be more inſtructive, than any rules of propriety that can be given. Here therefore ſhall be added ſome further examples of inaccuracies in the uſe of relatives.

The relative placed before the antecedent : Example: " The bodies, which we daily handle, make us perceive, that whilſt they remain between *them*, they do, by an unſurmountable force, hinder the approach of our *hands* that preſs them." Locke, Eſſay, B. ii, C. 4. Sect. 1. Here the ſenſe is ſuſpended, and the ſentence is unintelligible, till you get to the end of it : There is no antecedent to which the relative *them* can be referred, but *bodies* ; but, " whilſt the bodies remain between the bodies," makes no ſenſe at all. When you get to *hands*, difficulty is cleared up, the ſenſe helping out the conſtruc- Yet there ſtill remains an ambiguity in the relatives which in number and perſon, are equally applicable *ands* ; this, though it may not here be the occaſion of much obſcurity, which is commonly the effect of it, yet it is always diſagreeable and inelegant; as in the following examples:

"Men look with an evil eye, upon the good that is in others; and think, that *their* reputation obſcures *them*; and that *their* commendable qualities do ſtand in *their* light, and therefore *they* do what *they* can to caſt a cloud over *them*, that the bright ſhinings of *their* virtues, may not obſcure *them*." Tillotſon, Serm. I. 42.

"The Earl of Falmouth and Mr. Coventry, were rivals *who* ſhould have moſt influence with the Duke, *who* loved the Earl beſt, but thought the other the wiſer man, *who* ſupported Pen, *who* diſobliged all the courtiers, even againſt the Earl, who contemned Pen, as a fellow of no ſenſe." Clarendon, Cont. p. 264.

(39) The diſtributive conjunction *either*, is ſometimes improperly uſed alone, inſtead of the ſimple disjunctive *or*; "Can the figtree bear olive berries? *either* a vine, figs?" James iii. 12 "Why beholdeſt thou the mote that is in thy brother's eye? *Either* how canſt thou ſay to thy brother, Brother let me pull out the mote that is in thine eye; when thou thyſelf beholdeſt not the beam, that is in thine own eye?" Luke vi. 41. 42. See alſo chap. xv 8. and Phil. iii. 12.

Neither is ſometimes ſuppoſed to be included in its correſpondent *nor*.

"Simois, *nor* Xanthus ſhall be wanting there." Dryden.

Or is ſometimes uſed inſtead of *nor*, after *neither*: "This is another uſe, that in my opinion, contributes rather to make a man learned than wiſe, and is *neither* capable of pleaſing the underſtanding, *or* imagination." Addiſon, Dial. I. on Medals.

Neither for *nor*: "*Neither* in this world, *neither* in the world to come." Matt. xii. 32.

Too —, *that* improperly uſed as correſpondent conjunctions: "Whoſe characters are *too* profligate, *that* the managing of them ſhould be of any conſequence." Swift, Examiner, No. 24. And, *too*—, *than*: "You that are a ſtep higher than a philoſopher, a divine; yet have *too* much grace and wit *than* to be a biſhop." Pope to Swift, Letter 80. *So*—*but*: "If the appointing and apportioning of penalties to crimes be not *ſo* properly a conſideration of juſtice, *but rather* (as) of prudence in the lawgiver." Tillotſon, Serm. I. 35.

CRITICAL NOTES, by Dr. PRIESTLEY.

(1) IN ſeveral adjectives the termination *moſt* is uſed to expreſs the ſuperlative degrees; as, *hindermoſt*, or *hindmoſt*; *hithermoſt* (almoſt obſolete;) *uppermoſt*, *undermoſt*, *neithermoſt*, *innermoſt*, *outermoſt* or *utmoſt*,

(2) Several adverbs are uſed in an elegant manner, to anſwer the purpoſe of degrees of compariſon. There is great beauty in the uſe of the word *rather*, to expreſs a ſmall degree, or exceſs of a quality. "She is *rather* profuſe in her expenſes." Critical Review, No. 90. p. 43.

(3) The word *full* is likewiſe uſed to expreſs a ſmall exceſs of any quality. Thus we ſay, The tea is *full* weak, or *full* ſtrong; but this is only a colloquial phraſe.

(4) The prepoſition *with* is alſo ſometimes uſed in converſation, to expreſs a degree of quality ſomething leſs than the greateſt; as, they are *with* the wideſt.

(5) In ſome caſes we find ſubſtantives, without any alteration, uſed for adjectives. "In the *flux condition* of human affairs." Bolingbroke on hiſtory, vol. I. p. 199. "A muſlin flounce, made very full, would give a very agreeable *flirtation air*." Pope.—Chance companions. Of this kind are, an alabaſter column, a ſilver tankard, a grammar ſchool, and moſt other compound nouns.

(6) In ſpeaking to children, we ſometimes uſe the third perſon ſingular, inſtead of the ſecond; as, will *he* or *ſhe* do it. The Germans uſe the third perſon plural when they ſpeak the moſt reſpectfully.

(7) The pronouns *you* and *your* are ſometimes uſed with little regard to their proper meaning; for the ſpeaker has juſt as much intereſt in the caſe as thoſe he addreſſes. This ſtile is oſtentatious, and doth not ſuit grave writing. "Not only *your* men of more refined and ſolid parts and learning, but even *your* alchymiſt, and *your* fortuneteller, will diſcover the ſecrets of their art in Homer and Virgil." Addiſon on Medals, p. 32.

(8) For want of a ſufficient variety of perſonal pronouns of

the third perſon, and their poſſeſſives, our language labors under an ambiguity, which is unknown in moſt others. "The eagle killed the hen, and eat her in *her own* neſt —He ſent *him* to kill *his own* father." Nothing but the ſenſe of the preceding ſentences can determine what neſt, the hen's or the eagle's, is meant in the former of theſe examples; or whoſe father, his that gave the order, or his that was to execute it, in the latter.

(9) When the words are ſeparated by other prepoſitions, there is, ſometimes, the ſame ambiguity. "He was taking a view from a window of St. Chad's cathedral, in Litchfield, where [i. e. *in which*] a party of the royaliſts had fortified themſelves." Hume's Hiſtory. vol. VI. p. 449. Quere, was it in the cathedral, or in the town, that the party of royaliſts were fortified?

(10) The demonſtrative, *that*, is ſometimes uſed very emphatically for *ſo much*. "But the circulation of things, occaſioned by commerce, is not of *that* moment as the tranſplantation which human nature itſelf has undergone." Spirit of nations, p. 22.

(11) Sometimes this ſame pronoun is elegantly uſed for *ſo great* or *ſuch a*. "Some of them have gone to *that* height of extravagance, as to aſſert that performance had been immediately dictated by the Holy Ghoſt." Hume's hiſtory, vol. V. p. 288. In theſe caſes, however, it ſhould ſeem, that the common conſtruction is generally preferable.

(12) *What* is ſometimes put for *all the*, or words nearly equivalent. "*What* appearances of worth afterwards ſucceeded, were drawn from thence." Internal Policy of Great Britain, p. 196, i. e. all the appearances.

(13) The pronoun *one* has a plural number, when it is uſed as a ſubſtantive. "There are many whoſe waking thoughts are wholly employed in their ſleeping *ones*." Addiſon.

(14) I ſhall here mention a remarkable ambiguity in the uſe of the word *one* when it is no pronoun. And it is ſuch as, I think, cannot be avoided, except by a periphraſis, in any language. *I cannot find* one *of my books*. By theſe words I may either mean, that all the books are miſſing, or only one of them; but the tone of voice with which they are ſpoken, will eaſily diſtinguiſh in this caſe.

(15) The word *none* has generally, the force of a pronoun; as, "Where are the books? I have *none* of them." In this

caſe it ſeems, to be the ſame word with the adjective *no*; for where *no* is uſed with the ſubſtantive, *none* is uſed without it; for we ſay, *I have no books*; or, *I have none*. This word is uſed in a very peculiar ſenſe. "Iſrael would *none* of me." "I like *none* of it." i. e. Would not have me at all; do not like it at all.

(16) There is a remarkable ambiguity in the negative adjective *no*; and I do not ſee how it can be remedied in any language. If I ſay, "no laws are better than the Engliſh," it is only my known ſentiments that can inform a perſon whether I mean to praiſe or diſpraiſe them.

(17) The word *ſo* has ſometimes the ſame meaning with *alſo*, *likewiſe*, *the ſame*; or rather it is equivalent to the univerſal pronoun *le* in French. *They are happy*, *we are not* ſo, i. e. *not happy*.

(18) We want a conjunction adapted to a familar ſtyle equivalent to *notwithſtanding*. *For all that* ſeems to be too low and vulgar. "A word it was in the mouth of every one, but *for all that*, as to its preciſe and definite idea, this may ſtill be a ſecret." Harris' three Treatiſes, p. 5.

(19) *In regard that*, is ſolemn and antiquated; *becauſe* would do much better in the following ſentence. "The French muſic is diſliked by all other nations. It cannot be otherwiſe, *in regard that* the French proſody differs from every other country in Europe." Smollet's Voltaire, vol. IX. p. 306.

(20) *Except* is far preferable to *other than*. "It admitted of no effectual cure, *other than*, "amputation."

(21) In uſing proper names, we generally have recourſe to the adjective *one*, to particularize them. If I tell my friend, *I have ſeen one Mr. Roberts*, I ſuppoſe the Mr. Roberts that I mean to be a ſtranger to him; whereas, if I ſay, *I have ſeen Mr. Roberts*, I ſuppoſe him to be a perſon well known. Nothing ſuppoſes greater notoriety than to call a perſon ſimply Mr. It is therefore, great preſumption, or affectation in a writer, to prefix his name in this manner to any performance, as if all the world were well acquainted with his name and merit.

(22) A nice diſtinction of the ſenſe is ſometimes made by the uſe or omiſſion of the article *a*. If I ſay, *He behaved with a little reverence*, my meaning is poſitive. If I ſay, *He behaved with little reverence*, my meaning is negative; and theſe two are by no means the ſame, or to be uſed in the ſame caſes. By

the former I rather praiſe a perſon, by the latter I diſpraiſe him.

(23) For the ſake of this diſtinction, which is a very uſeful one, we may better bear the ſeeming impropriety of this article *a* before nouns of number, When I ſay, *there were* few men *with him*, I ſpeak diminutively, and mean to repreſent them as inconſiderable. Whereas, when I ſay, *there were* a few men *with him*. I evidently intend to make the moſt of them.

(24) Sometimes a nice diſtinction may be made in the ſenſe by a regard to the poſition of the article only. When we ſay *half a crown*, we mean a piece of money of one half of the value of a crown; but when we ſay, *a half crown*, we mean a half crown piece, or a piece of metal, of a certain ſize, figure, &c. Two ſhillings and ſixpence is *half a crown*, but not *a half crown*.

(25) The article *the* is often elegantly put, after the manner of the French, for the pronoun poſſeſſive; as, "he looks him full in *the* face," i. e. in his face. "That awful majeſty, in whoſe preſence they were to ſtrike *the* forehead on the ground," i. e. their foreheads. Ferguſon on Civil Society, p. 390.

(26) When a word is in ſuch a ſtate, as that it may, with very little impropriety, be conſidered, either as a proper, or a common name, the article *the* may be prefixed to it or not, at pleaſure. "*The* Lord Darnly was the perſon in whom moſt men's wiſhes centered." Hume's Hiſtory, vol. V. p. 87. *Lord Darnly* would have read juſt as well; and this form is more common, the word *Lord* being generally conſidered as part of the proper name.

(27) Different relations, and different ſenſes, muſt be expreſſed by different prepoſitions; though in conjunction with the ſame verb or adjective. Thus we ſay, *to converſe* with *a perſon*, upon *a ſubject* in *a houſe*. &c. We alſo ſay, *we are diſappointed* of *a thing*, when we cannot get it; and *diſappointed* in *it*, when we have it, and find it does not anſwer our expectations. But two different prepoſitions muſt be improper in the ſame conſtruction, and in the ſame ſentence. "The combat *between* thirty Britons, *againſt* twenty Engliſh." Smollet's Voltaire, vol. II. p. 292.

(28) In ſome caſes it is not poſſible to ſay to which of two prepoſitions the preference is to be given, as both are uſed promiſcuouſly,

miſcuouſly, and cuſtom has not decided in favor of either of them. We ſay, *expert at*, and *expert* in *a thing*. "Expert at finding a remedy for his miſtakes." Hume's Hiſtory, vol. IV. p. 417. We ſay, *diſapproved* of, and *diſapproved* by *a perſon*. "Diſapproved by our court." Swift. It is not improbable, but that, in time, theſe different conſtructions may be appropriated to different uſes. All languages furniſh examples of this kind, and the Engliſh as many as any other.

(29) The force of a prepoſition is implied in ſome word, particularly in the word *home*. When we ſay, *he went home*, we mean to *his own houſe*; yet in other conſtructions, this ſame word requires a prepoſition; for we ſay, *he went* from home. We ſay, *he is* at *home*, not *he is home*.

(30) Many writers affect to ſubjoin to any word the prepoſition with which it is compounded, or the idea of which it implies; in order to point out the relation of the words in a more diſtinct and definite manner, and to avoid the more indeterminate prepoſitions *of* and *to*; but general practice, and the idiom of the Engliſh tongue, ſeem to oppoſe the innovation. Thus many writers ſay *averſe* from *a thing*. "Averſe *from* Venus." Pope. "The abhorrence *againſt* all other ſects." Hume's Hiſtory, vol. 4. p. 34. But other writers uſe *averſe* to *it*, which ſeems more truly Engliſh. *Averſe* to *any advice*. Swift.

(31) Several of our modern writers have leaned to the French idiom in the uſe of the prepoſition *of*, by applying it where the French uſe *de*, though the Engliſh idiom would require another prepoſition, or no prepoſition at all in the caſe; but no writer has departed more from the genius of the Engliſh tongue in this reſpect than Mr. Hume. "Richlieu profited *of* every circumſtance, which the conjuncture afforded. Hume's Hiſtory, vol. 4. p. 241. We ſay, *profited* by. "He remembered him *of* the fable." Ib. vol. 5. p. 185. The great difficulty they find *of* fixing juſt ſentiments. Ib. "The king of England provided *of* every ſupply." Ib. vol. 1. p. 206. In another place he writes, "Provide them in food and raiment." Ib. vol. 2. p. 65. The true Engliſh idiom ſeems to be *to provide* with *a thing*.

(32) It is agreeable to the ſame idiom, that *of* ſeems to be uſed inſtead of *for* in the following ſentences. "The rain hath been falling *of* a long time." Maupertuis' Voyage. "It might

perhaps have given me a greater taſte *of* its antiquities." Addiſon. *Of*, in this place, occaſions a real ambiguity in the ſenſe. *A taſte* of a *thing*, implies actual enjoyment of it; but *a taſte* for *it* only implies a capacity for enjoyment.

(33) In the following ſentences, *on* or *upon* might very well be ſubſtituted for *of*. "Was totally dependent *of* the Papal crown." Hume's Hiſtory. "Laid hold *of*." Ib. We alſo uſe *of* inſtead of *on* or *upon*, in the following familiar phraſes, which occur chiefly in converſation; *to call* of *a perſon*, and *to wait* of *him*. *On* or *upon* is moſt correct.

(34) In ſome caſes a regard to the French idiom hath taught us to ſubſtitute *of* for *in*. "The great difficulty they found *of* fixing juſt ſentiments." Hume's Hiſtory. "Curious *of* antiquities."

(35) In a variety of caſes, the prepoſition *of* ſeems to be ſuperfluous in our language; and, in moſt of them, it has been derived to us from the French. "Notwithſtanding *of* the numerous panegyrics on the ancient Engliſh liberty."

(36) *Of* is often ambiguous, and would oftener be perceived to be ſo, did not the ſenſe of the reſt of the paſſage in which it occurs prevent that inconvenience. *The attack* of *the Engliſh*, naturally means *an attack made by the Engliſh, upon others*: but, in the following ſentence, it means an attack made upon the Engliſh. "The two princes concerted the means of rendering ineffectual their common attack *of* the Engliſh."

(37) *Of* is uſed in a particular ſenſe in the phraſe, *he is* of *age*; the meaning of which is, *he is arrived at what is deemed the age of manhood*.

(38) Agreeable to the Latin and French idioms, the prepoſition *to* is ſometimes uſed in conjunction with ſuch words as, in thoſe languages, govern the dative caſe; but this conſtruction does not ſeem to ſuit the Engliſh language. "His ſervants ye are, *to* whom ye obey." Romans. "And to their general's voice they ſoon obey'd."

(39) *To* ſeems to be uſed inſtead of *for* in the following ſentences. "Deciding law-ſuits *to* the northern counties." Hume's Hiſtory. "A great change *to* the better." Hume's Eſſays. At leaſt, *for* is more uſual in this conſtruction.

(40) *To* ſeems to be uſed improperly in the following ſentences. "His abhorrence *to* that ſuperſtitious figure." Hume's Hiſtory, i. e. *of*. "Thy prejudice *to* my cauſe." Dryden, i. e. *againſt*. "Conſequent *to*." Locke, i. e. *upon*.

(41) The place of the prepoſition *for*, might have been better ſupplied by other prepoſitions in the following ſentences. "The worſhip of this deity is extremely ridiculous, and therefore better *adapted for* the vulgar." Smollet's Voltaire, i. e. *to*. "To die *for* thirſt." Addiſon, i. e. *of* or *by*. "More than they *thought for*, [*of*.]" D' Alembert.

(42) The prepoſition *with* ſeems to be uſed where *to* would have been more proper in the following ſentences. "Reconciling himſelf *with* the king." Hume's Hiſtory. "Theſe things which have the greateſt *reſemblance with* each other, differ the moſt." Smollet's Voltaire.

(43) Other prepoſitions had better have been ſubſtituted for *with*, in the following ſentences. "Glad *with* [at] the ſight of hoſtile blood." Dryden. "He has as much reaſon to be angry *with* you as *with* him." Preceptor.

(44) The prepoſition *with* and a perſonal pronoun, ſometimes ſerve for a contraction of a clauſe of a ſentence. "The homunculus is endowed with the ſame locomotive powers and faculties *with* us." Triſtram Shandy, i. e. *the ſame faculties with which we are endowed*.

(45) The prepoſition *on* or *upon* ſeems to be uſed improperly in the following ſentences. "I thank you for helping me to an uſe *(of a medal)* that perhaps I ſhould not have *thought on* [*of*.]" Addiſon. "Cenſorious *upon* all his brethren." Swift, perhaps *of*.

(46) We ſay *to* depend upon *a thing*, but not *to* promiſe upon *it*. "But this effect we may ſafely ſay, no one could beforehand have *promiſed upon*." Hume's Hiſtory. It might have been, *have promiſed themſelves*.

(47) The prepoſition *in* is ſometimes uſed where the French uſe their *en*, but where ſome other prepoſitions would be more agreeable to the Engliſh idiom. "He made a point of honour *in* [of] not departing from his enterpriſe." Hume's Hiſtory. "To be liable *in* a compenſation." Law Tracts.

(48) The prepoſition *from* had better be changed in the following ſentences. "He acquits me *from* mine iniquity." Job, better *of*. "Could have profited *from* [by] repeated experiencies." Hume's Hiſtory.

(49 *From* ſeems to be ſuperfluous after *forbear*. "He could not forbear *from* appointing the Pope to be one of the godfathers." Ibid.

(50) The prepoſition *among* always implies a number of things: and, therefore, cannot be uſed in conjunction with the word *every*, which is in the ſingular number. "Which is found *among every* ſpecies of liberty." Hume.

(51) Sometimes the word *all* is emphatically put after a number of particulars comprehended under it.

"Her fury, her deſpair, her every geſture,
Was nature's language *all*."——Voltaire.
"Ambition, intereſt, glory, *all* concurred."
Let. on Chiv.

(53) The word *ſuch* is often placed after a number of particulars to which it particularly relates. "The figures of diſcourſe, the pointed antitheſis, the unnatural conceit, the jingle of words; *ſuch* falſe ornaments were not employed by early writers."——Hume's Hiſtory.

(54) The prepoſition *of* will not bear to be ſeparated from the noun which it either precedes or follows, without a diſagreeable effect. "The ignorance of that age in mechanical arts, rendered *the progreſs* very ſlow, *of* this new invention."——Hume's Hiſtory.

(55) Little explanatory circumſtances are particularly aukward between a genitive caſe, and the word which uſually follows it. "She began to extol the *farmer's*, as ſhe called him, *excellent underſtanding*." Harriet Watſon.

(56) It is a matter of indifference, with reſpect to the pronoun *one another*, whether the prepoſition *of* be placed between the two parts of it, or before them both. We may either ſay, *they were jealous* one of another, or *they were jealous* of one another.

ELIPSIS.

Elipſis is the elegant omiſſion of a word or words in a ſentence.

This figure, judiciouſly managed, renders language conciſe, without obſcuring the ſenſe.

EXAMPLES.

True Conſtruction.

1. God will reward the righteous and *God* will puniſh the wicked. *Nominative omitted.*

God will reward the righteous and puniſh the wicked.

True Conſtruction.

2. Give your heart to your Maker—*give* honor to your parents—and *give* your boſom to your friend.

Verb omitted.

Give your heart to your Maker—honour to your parents—and your boſom to your friend.

True Conſtruction.

3. Here is the virtue *which* I admire and *which* I will endeavour to imitate.

Relative omitted.

Here is the virtue I admire and will endeavour to imitate.

TRANSPOSITION.

Tranſpoſition or inverſion, is the placing of words out of their natural order.

The order of words is either *natural* or *artificial.*

The *natural* order of words in a ſentence is when they follow each other in the ſame manner as the conceptions of the mind.

Artificial order is when words are ſo arranged as to render the ſentence harmonious and agreeable to the ear without obſcuring the ſenſe.

EXAMPLES *in* PROSE.

Natural Order.

" We hear daily complaints of depopulation, in every great ſtate where the people are ſunk into voluptuouſneſs, by proſperity and opulence."

Artificial Order.

In every great ſtate, where the people by proſperity and opulence, are ſunk into voluptuouſneſs, we hear daily complaints of depopulation,

In the foregoing example, the *artificial* order of the words, is as perſpicuous as the *natural*, and more elegant and harmonious. But when an inverſion ſerves to embarraſs a period, it ought to be avoided, for perſpicuity ought not to be ſacrificed to any other ornament.

The following example appears to be faulty in this reſpect.

" Now from theſe evils, the love of letters, with that liberal caſt of thought which they are naturally calculated to give, would, I am perſuaded, be one powerful preſervative."

Fordyce, Ser. 8.

Corrected.

"I am perſuaded that the love of letters, with that liberal caſt of thought which they are naturally calculated to give, would be one powerful preſervative from theſe evils."

POETRY.

Inverted Order.

"Or ſouthward far extend thy wond'ring eyes,
Where fertile ſtreams the garden'd vales divide;
And mid the peopled fields diſtinguiſh'd riſe
Virginian towers and Charleſton's ſpiry pride."

Elegy on the times.

Natural Order.

Or extend thy wondering eyes far ſouthward, where fertile ſtreams divide the gardened vales; and Virginian towers and Charleſton's ſpiry pride riſe diſtinguiſhed amid the peopled fields.

ARRANGEMENT.

As the principal object to be conſidered in any compoſition, whether proſe or verſe, is perſpicuity, and as this depends much on a proper arrangement of the members of a period: it is neceſſary to lay down ſome general rules with reſpect to this point, and illuſtrate their propriety by examples of wrong arrangement.

1. Words expreſſing ideas that are connected in the mind, ought to be placed as near together as poſſible.

The want of ſuch connexion is obvious in the following examples.

"For the Engliſh are naturally fanciful, and very often diſpoſed by *that gloomineſs of temper which is ſo frequent in our nation*, to many wild notions, and viſions, to which others are not liable."

Spect. No. 419.

Corrected.

For the Engliſh are naturally fanciful, and by that gloomineſs of temper which is ſo frequent in our nation, are very often diſpoſed to many wild notions and viſions to which others are not ſo liable.

"The ſame Lucumo, having afterwards attained the crown, with the name of Tarquin the ancient, *by the favour of the people*, did, that he might preſerve their affection, chooſe out of their order a hundred Senators," &c.

"The ſame Lucumo having afterwards, by the favour of the people, attained the crown, with the name of Tarquin the ancient, did," &c.—Vertot.

2. A circumſtance ought not to be placed between two capital members of a period; for this renders it doubtful, to which of the two members, the circumſtance belongs. Witneſs the following example.

"Since this is too much to aſk of freemen, nay of ſlaves, *if his expectations be not anſwered*, ſhall he form a laſting diviſion upon ſuch tranſient motives?"——Bolingbroke.

Corrected.

Since this is too much to aſk of freemen, nay of ſlaves, ſhall he, if his expectations be not anſwered, form a laſting diviſion upon ſuch tranſient motives?

In this example it is doubtful, whether the circumſtance in Italic, belongs to the firſt or laſt member of the period: in the correction the ambiguity is removed.

3. A circumſtance ſhould be placed near the beginning of a period, rather than at or near the concluſion. The mind paſſes with pleaſure from ſmall to great objects; but the tranſition from great to ſmall is diſagreeable. For this reaſon, the cloſing member of a period ought to be the moſt important.

In this reſpect the following examples are exceptionable.

"And although they may be, and too often are drawn, by the temptations of youth and the opportunities of a large fortune, into ſome irregularities, *when they come forward into the world*; it is ever with reluctance, and compunction of mind, becauſe their bias to virtue continues." Intelligencer. No. 9.

"And although when they come forward into the world, they may be, and too often are drawn by the temptations of youth, and the opportunities of a large fortune, into ſome irregularities; it is ever with reluctance and compunction of mind, becauſe their bias to virtue continues."

In this example, the circumſtance in Italics, is placed too late in the period, and renders the firſt diviſion of it, flat and unimportant; in the correction, the circumſtance is placed in the beginning of the period, and its harmony and dignity are not afterwards interrupted.

4. A number of circumſtances ought not to be crowded together, but interſperſed among the capital members of a period.

Example.

“ It is likewiſe urged that there are, by computation, in this kingdom, above 10,000 perſons, whoſe revenues,” &c.—Swift.

Corrected.

“ It is likewiſe urged that, in this kingdom, there are, by computation, above 10,000 perſons whoſe revenues,” &c.

The two circumſtances, *by computation*, and, *in this kingdom*, placed together, deſtroy the clearneſs and beauty of this period.

“ They beheld, *with wonder, at court*, a young lady ſo intelligent, and who ſpoke the ancient languages with no leſs purity than grace.” Eſſay on Women.

“ They beheld, with wonder, a young lady at court, who was ſo intelligent and ſpoke the ancient languages with no leſs purity than grace.”

Perhaps the beſt arrangement would be, “ With wonder they beheld,” &c. “ In England we met with the three Seymours, ſiſters, neices to a king and daughters to a protector, all celebrated for their learning, and for their elegant Latin verſes, which were tranſlated and repeated all over Europe.—Jane Gray, whoſe elevation to the throne was only a ſtep to the ſcaffold, and who read, *before her death*, in *Greek*, Plato's dialogue on the immortality of the ſoul.”

One would imagine by the ſituation of the two circumſtances, *before her death*, and *in Greek*, that her death was in Greek: It ought to be, who, before her death, read in Greek, &c. The ellipſis alſo in the beginning of the period, rather ſerves to obſcure the ſenſe. “ The three Seymours *who were* ſiſters,” &c. would be more perſpicuous. Perhaps the greateſt fault in Mr. Ruſſel's ſtyle, is, a too frequent uſe of the ellipſis.

5. A pronoun ought to ſtand as near to its antecedent as poſſible. A wide ſeparation of words ſo intimately connected, often renders the ſenſe ambiguous.

"It is the cuſtom of the Mahometans, if they ſee any printed or written paper upon the *ground*, to take *it* up and lay it aſide carefully, as not knowing but it may contain ſome piece of their Alcoran." Spect. No. 85.

"It is the cuſtom of the Mahometans, if they ſee, upon the ground, any printed or written *paper*, to take *it* up and lay it aſide carefully," &c.

In this example, the conſtruction of the ſentence, leads us to imagine that the pronoun *it* refers to *ground*; whereas its antecedent is *paper*: And the nearer theſe ſtand to each other, the more eaſily does the mind comprehend the meaning of the author.

6. The members of a period ought if poſſible to be ſo arranged, that the mind will eaſily comprehend the meaning and the connexion as faſt as the eye ſurveys the words. A ſuſpenſion of thought, till the cloſe of a period, is painful and embarraſſing to the underſtanding. Witneſs the following.

Examples.

"*She* again, who ſhould not perceive herſelf prompted to a prudent and amiable demeanor or guarded againſt the contrary, by thoſe pictures of diſcretion and excellence on one hand, and of levity and worthleſſneſs on the other, with which ſentimental and moral writers abound, *muſt be* abſolutely void of decency and reflection." Fordyce, Sermon 3d.

Corrected.

"She again muſt be abſolutely void of decency and reflection, who ſhould not perceive herſelf prompted to a prudent and amiable demeanor, or guarded againſt the contrary, by thoſe pictures of diſcretion and excellence on one hand, and of levity and worthleſſneſs on the other, with which ſentimental and moral writers abound."

In this example, the firſt word *ſhe* is intimately connected with the laſt member of the period, *muſt be*, &c. and it is a taſk too painful for the mind to retain the firſt word till it arrives at the cloſe, and at the ſame time comprehend the meaning of the intervening circumſtances.

The arrangement in the correction renders the period ſmooth and perſpicuous.

An elegant writer of the preſent day is guilty of the ſame fault, in the following example.

"The burning ardors and the tormenting jealouſies of the Seraglio and the Haram, which have reigned ſo long in Aſia and Africa, and which, in the ſouthern parts of Europe, have ſcarcely given way to the difference of religion and civil eſtabliſhments, are found, however, with an abatement of heat in the climate, to be more eaſily changed in one latitude, into a temporary paſſion which engroſſes the mind, without enfeebling it, and which excites to romantic atchievements," &c. Ferguſon's Eſſay on the Hiſtory of Civil Society, Part 3. Sect. 1.

Here the capital members of the period. viz. *the burning ardors and the tormenting jealouſies of the Seraglio and Haram, are found to be more eaſily changed into a temporary paſſion,* &c. are ſeparated at ſuch a great diſtance, and disjointed by ſuch a number of intervening circumſtances, as to perplex the reader and fatigue his mind by cloſely attending to the connexion of ideas.

It may be remarked in general, that ſentences ought not to cloſe with *adverbs, relatives,* or *participles.* Little unimportant words; as, *to, for, with, it,* &c. cloſe a period without force, and leave a feeble impreſſion upon the mind. Important words, ſuch as *nouns, verbs, participles,* and *adjectives,* make the beſt figure in the concluſion of periods—they add dignity to the ſtile, and energy to the ſentiment.

PUNCTUATION.

Abridged from Dr. LOWTH.

PUNCTUATION is the art of marking in writing the ſeveral pauſes or reſts between ſentences, and the parts of ſentences.

As the ſeveral articulate ſounds, the ſyllables and words, of which ſentences conſiſt, are marked by letters, ſo the pauſes, between ſentences and their parts, are marked by points.

The different degrees of connexion between the parts of ſentences, require a great variety of pauſes of different lengths; yet, to expreſs this variety, we uſe only four points. For this reaſon the doctrine of punctuation muſt neceſſarily be imperfect, and not reducible to preciſe rules.

But a few general remarks on this ſubject may be uſeful in directing the judgment of the learner.

The points uſed to mark the pauſes between ſentences and their ſeveral parts, are the period, colon, ſemicolon, and comma. The proportional quantity of time between theſe may be, as, ſix, four, two and one.

The period is the whole ſentence complete in itſelf, wanting nothing to make a full and perfect ſenſe, and not connected in conſtruction with a ſubſequent ſentence.

The colon or member, is a chief conſtructive part, or greater diviſion of a ſentence.

The ſemicolon or half member, is a leſs conſtructive part, or ſubdiviſion of a ſentence or member.

A ſentence or member is again ſubdivided into commas or ſegments, which are the leaſt conſtructive ſenſe of a ſentence or member, in this way of conſidering it; for the next ſubdiviſion would be the reſolution of it into phraſes and words.

In order the more clearly to determine the proper application of the point which marks it, we muſt diſtinguiſh between an imperfect phraſe, a ſimple ſentence, and a compound ſentence.

An imperfect phraſe contains no aſſertion, or does not amount to a propoſition or ſentence.

A ſimple ſentence has but one ſubject, and one finite verb.

A compound ſentence has more than one ſubject, or one finite verb, either expreſſed or underſtood; or it conſiſts of two or more ſimple ſentences connected together.

In a ſentence, the ſubject and the verb may be each of them accompanied with ſeveral adjuncts; as the object, the end, the circumſtance of time, place and manner, and the like: and this either immediately, or mediately; that is, by being connected with ſomething which is connected with ſome other; and ſo on.

If the ſeveral adjuncts affect the ſubject or the verb in a different manner, they are only ſo many imperfect phraſes; and the ſentence is ſimple.

A ſimple ſentence admits of no point by which it may be divided, or diſtinguiſhed into parts.

If the ſeveral adjuncts affect the verb in the ſame manner, they may be reſolved into ſo many ſimple ſentences; the ſentence then becomes compounded, and it muſt be divided into its parts by points.

For if there are ſeveral ſubjects belonging in the ſame man-

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er to one verb, or ſeveral verbs belonging in the ſame manner to one ſubject, the ſubjects and verbs, are ſtill to be accounted equal in number: for every verb muſt have its ſubject, and every ſubject its verb; and every one of the ſubjects or verbs, ſhould or may have its point of diſtinction.

EXAMPLES.

“The paſſion for praiſe produces excellent effects in women of ſenſe.” Addiſon, Spect. No. 73. In this ſentence *paſſion* is the ſubject, and *produces* the verb: Each of which is accompanied and connected with its adjuncts. The ſubject is not paſſion in general, but a particular paſſion determined by its adjunct of ſpecification, as we may call it, the paſſion *for praiſe*. So likewiſe the verb is immediately connected with its object *excellent effects*; and mediately, that is, by the intervention of the word *effects*, with *women*, the ſubject in which theſe effects are produced; which again is connected with its adjunct of ſpecification, for it is not meant of women in general, but of women *of ſenſe* only. Laſtly, it is to be obſerved, that the verb is connected with each of the ſeveral adjuncts in a different manner; namely, with *effects*, as the object; with *women*, as the ſubject of them; with *ſenſe*, as the quality or characteriſtic of thoſe women. The adjuncts therefore are only ſo many imperfect phraſes; the ſentence is a ſimple ſentence, and admits of no point by which it may be diſtinguiſhed into parts.

“The paſſion for praiſe, which is ſo very vehement in the fair ſex, produces excellent effects in women of ſenſe.” Here a new verb is introduced, accompanied with adjuncts of its own; and the ſubject is repeated by the relative pronoun *which*. It now becomes a compound ſentence, made up of two ſimple ſentences, one of which is inſerted in the middle of the other; it muſt therefore be diſtinguiſhed into its component parts by a point placed on each ſide of the additional ſentence.

“How many inſtances have we [in the fair ſex] of chaſtity, fidelity, devotion? How many ladies diſtinguiſh themſelves by the education of their children, care of their family, and love of their huſbands; which are the great qualities and atchievemets of womankind; as the making of war, the carrying on of traffic, the adminiſtration of juſtice, are thoſe by which men grow famous, and get themſelves a name.”—— Ibid.

In the firſt of theſe two ſentences, the adjuncts *chaſtity*, *fidelity*, *devotion*, are connected with the verb by the word *inſtances* in the ſame manner, and in effect make ſo many diſtinct ſentences : " How many inſtances have we of chaſtity ? How many inſtances have we of fidelity ? How many inſtances have we of devotion ?" They muſt therefore be ſeparated from one another by a point. The ſame may be ſaid of the adjuncts, " education of their children," &c. in the former part of the next ſentence ; as likewiſe of the ſeveral ſubjects, " the making of war," &c. in the latter part, which have in effect each their verb ; for each of theſe " is an atchievement by which men grow famous."

As ſentences themſelves are divided into ſimple and compounded, ſo the members of ſentences may be divided into ſimple and compounded members : for whole ſentences, whether compounded or uncompounded, may become members of other ſentences, by means of ſome additional connexion.

Simple members of ſentences, cloſely connected together in one compounded member, or ſentence, are diſtinguiſhed or ſeparated by a comma ; as in the foregoing examples.

So likewiſe, the caſe abſolute ; nouns in appoſition, when conſiſting of many terms : the participle with ſomething depending on it, are to be diſtinguiſhed by the comma ; for they may be reſolved into ſimple members.

When an addreſs is made to a perſon, the noun, anſwering to the vocative caſe in Latin, is diſtinguiſhed by a comma.

EXAMPLES.

" This ſaid, he formed thee, Adam ; thee, O man, duſt of the ground."

" Now morn, her roſy ſteps in th' eaſtern clime,
Advancing, ſow'd the earth with orient pearl."

Milton.

Two nouns, or two adjectives, connected by a ſingle copulative or disjunctive are not ſeparated by a point ; but when there are more than two, or where the conjunction is underſtood, they muſt be diſtinguiſhed by a comma.

Simple members, connected by relatives and comparatives, are for the moſt part diſtinguiſhed by a comma ; but when the members are ſhort in comparative ſentences, and when two members are cloſely connected by a relative reſtraining the ge-ral notion of the antecedent to a particular ſenſe, the pauſe ecomes almoſt inſenſible, and the comma is better omitted.

EXAMPLES.

“ Raptures, tranſports, and ecſtacies, are the rewards which ey confer ; ſighs and tears, prayers and broken hearts, are e offerings which are paid to them.” Addiſon, Ibid.

“ Gods, partial, changeful, paſſionate, unjuſt,
Whoſe attributes were rage, revenge or luſt.”
Pope.

“ What is ſweeter than honey ? and what is ſtronger than a on ?”

A circumſtance of importance, tho no more than an imper- l phraſe, may be ſet off with a comma on each ſide, to give greater force and diſtinction,

EXAMPLE.

“ The principle may be defective or faulty ; but the conſe- ences it produces are ſo good, that, for the benefit of man- nd, it ought not to be extinguiſhed.”—Addiſon, Ibid.

A member of a ſentence, whether ſimple or compounded, at requires a greater pauſe than a comma, yet does not of it- lf make a complete ſentence, but is followed by ſomething oſely depending on it, may be diſtingniſhed by a ſemicolon.

EXAMPLE.

“ But as this paſſion for admiration, when it works accord- g to reaſon, improves the beautiful part of our ſpecies in ery thing that is laudable ; ſo nothing is more deſtructive to em, when it is governed by vanity and folly.” Addiſon, id.

Here the whole ſentence is divided into two parts by the ſe- icolon ; each of which parts is a compounded member, divid- into its ſimple members by the comma.

A member of a ſentence whether ſimple or compounded, hich of itſelf would make a complete ſentence, and ſo requires greater pauſe than a ſemicolon, yet is followed by an addi- nal part, making a more full and perfect ſenſe, may be diſ- nguiſhed by a colon.

EXAMPLES.

“ Were all the books reduced to their quinteſſence, many ulky author would make his appearance in a penny paper :

There would be ſcarce any ſuch thing in nature as a foli
The works of an age would be contained on a few ſhelve
Not to mention millions of volumes, that would be utte
annihilated." Addiſon, Spect. 124.

Here the whole ſentence is divided into four parts by colon
The firſt and laſt of which are compounded members, each vided by a comma ; the ſecond and third are ſimple membe

When a ſemicolon has preceded, and a greater pauſe is ſt neceſſary, a colon may be employed, though the ſentence incomplete.

The colon is alſo commonly uſed, when an example, or ſpeech is introduced.

When a ſentence is ſo far perfectly finiſhed, as not to connected in conſtruction with the following ſentence, it marked with a period.

In all caſes, the proportion of the ſeveral points in reſpe to one another, is rather to be regarded, than their ſuppoſ precise quantity, or proper office, when taken ſeparately.

Beſide the points, which mark the pauſes in diſcourſe, the are others which denote a different modulation of the voice correſpondence with the ſenſe. Theſe are

The interrogation point, } thus marked { ?
The exclamation point, } thus marked { !
The parentheſis, } thus marked { ()

The interrogation and exclamation points are ſufficiently e plained by their names : They are indeterminate as to the quantity or time, and may be equivalent in that reſpect to ſemicolon, a colon or a period, as the ſenſe requires. The mark an elevation of the voice.

The parentheſis incloſes, in the body of a ſentence, a mem ber inſerted into it, which is neither neceſſary to the ſenſe, n at all affects the conſtruction. It marks a moderate depreſſi of the voice, with a pauſe greater than a comma.

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AN EXAMPLE,

Of the various combinations of a principal verb, with th auxiliaries and participles, in the different modes and tenſe with a brief explanation of each.

The *firſt* perſon only is ſet down ; the others may be ſuppl ed by the learner.

General Rules.

I. The auxiliary *have*, is uſed before the participles in *d*, *t*, *n*, commonly called the *paſt* or *perfect* participles. *Be* is uſ- before all participles. The other helping words are uſed y before the radical form of the verb. Thus

dical form.	*Paſt Time.*	*Participles.*
Write.	wrote.	writing—written.

I may
I can
I do
I muſt
I might
I could
I ſhall
I will
I ſhould
I would } write.

I am
I was
I have been } writing.

It is
It was
It has been
It will be } written.

II. The paſt time *wrote* muſt not be preceded by any help- g word whatever.

III. When a helping verb precedes another verb, the help- g verb only is varied; as thou *mayeſt* go.

IV. When two or more helping verbs are uſed, the firſt ly is varied; as thou *wouldſt* have gone.

V. The *radical form* of the verb is that which admits be- e it the participle *to*, as *to write, to love*. This conſtitutes *Infinitive Mode*.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Preſent Time.

No. 1. To write; to love; to turn.

Explanation. This radical form of verbs expreſſes action being in general, without limitation of perſon or number.

No. 2. To be writing.

Expl. This form or combination repreſents an action as w paſſing, or at ſome ſpecified time.

Paſt Time.

No. 3. To have written.

Expl. This repreſents an action as paſt.

No. 4. To have been writing.

Expl. This expreſſes an action, as juſt paſt, or as paſſi while ſome other thing was performing.

Note. The beginning of an action or preparation for is thus expreſſed; *I am about to write*; *I am going to writ* *I was* or *ſhall be about to write*. This combination is, t verb *be* with *about* or *going* placed before the radical form of t verb.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Preſent Time.

No. 5. I write, Thou writeſt, &c.

Expl. This ſpeaks of a preſent action or fact, as it rain or of its exiſtence in general without reference to time; as *man writes a good hand*.

No. 6. I am writing.

Expl. This marks the preciſe time of action: It denotes action *now* performing,

No. 7. I do write.

Expl. This ſpeaks of an action with certainty and emph ſis. See the explanation of *do*, page 19.

No. 8. I may write.

Expl. This expreſſes *liberty* or *poſſibility*. When it expre ſes *poſſibility*, it ſeems to carry the ſenſe of the *future* time, leaſt it may be united with other words expreſſive of the futur as, *I may go to morrow perhaps*, or *I may not go till the next d*

No. 9. I can write.

Expl. This denotes the *power* of doing an action. Li *may*, it often refers to future time; as *I can go to morrow*.

No. 10. I muſt write.

Expl. This denotes ſome kind of neceſſity, natural or m ral. It is uſed to expreſs an indiſpenſible duty.

No. 11. I may be writing.
No. 12. I can be writing.
No. 13. I muſt be writing.

Theſe differ from the fo going, only in marki more preciſely the time action.

No. 14. I ſhould write.

Expl. This denotes a conditional event; as *I ſhould wri if I had a conveyance*. But *ſhould* with an emphaſis, in the *fi* perſon, and without emphaſis in the 2d and 3d perſons, ge rally, perhaps always, expreſſes *duty* or *obligation*. *You ſho go* is equivalent to *you ought to go*. When an emphaſis is l

on

n *ſhould* in the 2d and 3d perſons, it implies an authority in the peaker to command, or a fixed determination ; or rather it ppoſes that if the ſpeaker had a right to command, he would ompel the ſecond or third perſon to perform an act. *If I had he care of you,* you *ſhould* go.

No. 15. I would write.

Expl. This expreſſes will or inclination under a condition. *I would write, if I had paper.* With an emphaſis on *would*, it enotes a more fixed determination.

No. 16. I might write.

Expl. This uſually denotes a conditional *liberty* or *poſſibility* f doing an action.

No. 17. I could write.

Expl. This denotes a conditional power of doing an action.

Note. The words *would*, *might*, *could* and ſometimes *ſhould*, re followed by a condition expreſſed or implied. I would rite, *if* I had a conveyance ; I might go, *if* I pleaſed. I ould go, *if* I was well.

No. 18. I ſhould be writing }
No. 19. I would be writing } mark the preciſe time
No. 20. I might be writing } of an action.
No. 21. I could be writing }

Paſt Time.

No. 22. I wrote. I turned.

Expl. This expreſſes an action completely paſt, and refers ſome particular or ſpecified period of time at any indefinite ſtance ; as, *I wrote laſt week* ; or *I wrote to a man, five years go.*

No. 23. I was writing.

Expl. This declares the time of action, and uſually ſpeaks an action which was paſſing during ſome other tranſaction ; I was writing, when he came in.

No. 24. I did write.

Expl. This refers, like No. 22, to ſome particular period time paſt ; but *did* is uſed to expreſs emphaſis or certainty. e the uſes of *do,* page 19.

No. 25. I have written.

Expl. This denotes an action perfectly paſt, and ſometimes lately paſt, but is very indefinite as to the particular time.*

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* Nothing can be leſs correct than the diſtinction uſually made tween *I wrote* and *I have written.* *Wrote,* ſay our Grammars,

No. 26. I have been writing.

Expl. This denotes an action juſt paſt.

No. 27. I may have written.

Expl. This denotes a *poſſibility* that an action has bee done.

No. 28. I may have been writing.

Expl. This expreſſes a *poſſibility* that an action has juſt bee done.

No. 29. I muſt have written.

Expl. This expreſſes the neceſſity of an action paſt: o more generally, the ſpeaker's confidence that an action has bee done.

No. 30. I muſt have been writing.

Expl. This denotes a ſimilar neceſſity, or confidence tha ſomething has juſt been done or doing.

No. 31. I might write
No. 32. I might be writing
No. 33. I could write
No. 34. I could be writing
No. 35. I would write
No. 36. I would be writing
No. 37. I ſhould write
No. 38. I ſhould be writing

These are the ſame com binations, as thoſe in the preſent tenſe; ſee No. 1 and onwards. But they ar rarely uſed in paſt time, ex cept in *negative and interro gative* phraſes. Yet on ac count of ſuch phraſes they ar ſet down under this tenſe.

No. 39. I might have written.

Expl. This expreſſes a paſt *liberty* or *poſſibility* of doing a action. *Might*, with emphaſis, expreſſes *liberty* or *right*; wit out emphaſis, a bare *poſſibility*.

No. 40. I might have been writing.

Expl. This denotes the *liberty* or *poſſibility* of a man's doin an action during ſome other tranſaction.

No. 41. I could have written.

Expl. This expreſſes a *paſt* power of doing an action.

No. 42. I could have been writing.

Expl. This expreſſes a paſt power of doing an action, du ing ſome other tranſaction.

No. 43. I would have written.

Expl.

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denotes an action *not completely or perfectly paſt*—*have written*, a action *perfectly paſt*. I would aſk them whether *I wrote and* *a letter a year ago*, does not expreſs an action *perfectly paſt?* true diſtinction is given in the text.

Expl. This denotes a paſt conditional intention or inclination to do and complete an action. An emphaſis on would gives it the force of a fixed determination.

No. 44 I would have been writing.

Expl. This denotes a paſt intention to be doing an action during ſome other tranſaction.

No. 45. I ſhould have written.

Expl. This denotes an intention or obligation to have done an action in time paſt. See. No. 14, for the full explanatation of *ſhould*.

No. 46. I ſhould have been writing.

Expl. *Should* may be explained as in No. 14, but this combination refers to an action during ſome other tranſaction.

No. 47. I had written.

Expl. This expreſſes that at ſome *particular time paſt*, an action was *then* paſt and complete.

No. 48. I had been writing.

Expl. This denotes that an action was juſt done, when ſomething elſe took place.

Future Time.

No. 49. I will write, is a promiſe that an action ſhall be done.

Thou wilt or
you will
He will write. } foretell an event.
We will write, is a promiſe,
Ye and you will
They will write. } foretell an event.

No. 50. I will be writing } this promiſes } that an action ſhall be doing, while ſomething elſe is taking place.
Thou wilt, you will.
He will be writing. } theſe foretell }
We will be writing—promiſes
Ye and you will
They will } foretell } as above

No. 51. I ſhall write
we ſhall write } theſe foretell } that an action ſhall be done in future time.
Thou ſhalt, you ſhall
and he ſhall write
Ye and you ſhall
They ſhall write. } command or promiſe }

No. 52.	I ſhall We ſhall You ſhall He ſhall Ye ſhall They ſhall	be writing	as above
No. 53.	I will have written We will have written		promiſe that at a future time, a action ſhall be complete——[no much uſed.]
	You He Ye They	will have written—	Theſe foretell that at a future time, an action wil be done and complete.
No. 54.	I Will We will		have been writing—Not uſed.
	You will He will Ye will They will	have been writing—	Theſe foretell tha at a ſpecified time an action will hav continued and paſt.
No. 55.	I ſhall We ſhall	have written	foretell that at a fu ture time, an actio will be finiſhed.
	You He Ye They	ſhall have written	command the ſame bu not much uſed.
No. 56.	I ſhall We ſhall	have been writing	foretell that an action wil have juſt been done, whe ſomething elſe ſhall tak place.
	You He Ye They		Shall have been writing, comman the ſame, but not uſed.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

No. 57. Write, or write thou, or write you.

Note. After *if* expreſſed or implied, Engliſh verbs in the form of the *paſt* time, have the ſenſe of the *preſent* ; but with this peculiarity, that the verb, *without* any word of negation, always implies a *negative*, and, *with* a word of negation, always implies an *affirmative*. Thus, "if I had Virgil, I would read a paſſage," implies that I *have not* Virgil at the *preſent time* ; "if it *did not* rain, I would go abroad," implies that it *does rain* at *this* time. This uſe of our verbs ſeems not to have been remarked by writers on this ſubject.

Combinations of the auxiliary *be* with other auxiliary verbs and participles, anſwering to the paſſive verb of the Greek and Latin.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Preſent Time.

No. 58.	I am loved.	We are loved.
	Thou art loved.	Ye are loved.
	You are loved.	You are loved.
	He is loved.	They are loved.

Paſt Time.

No. 59. I was loved.
No. 60. I have been loved.
No. 61. I had been loved.

Future Time.

No. 62. I ſhall be loved.
No. 63. I will be loved.
No. 64. I ſhall have been loved.
No. 65. I will have been loved.

The following combinations are not repreſented by the Latin *paſſive verb*, but have a paſſive ſenſe.

Preſent Time.

No. 66. I may be loved.
No. 67. I can be loved.
No. 68. I muſt be loved.
No. 69. I would be loved.
No. 70. I ſhould be loved.

No. 71. I could be loved.
No. 72. I might be loved.

Paſt Time.

No. 73. I muſt have been loved.
No. 74. I would have been loved.
No. 75. I ſhould have been loved.
No. 76. I could have been loved.
No. 77. I might have been loved.

Practical Leſſons.

In making Engliſh ; the verb being ſet down in the radical form, and the *figures* referring to the tenſe or combination in the foregoing Example, in which the verb is to be formed by the learner.

1. I cheriſh 47 ſome averſion to names grown trite by repetition, and, on that account, evade 47 the ancient republics. But I find the obſervation juſt, that " half our learning is their epitaph." I conceive that the " moſs grown" columns and broken arches of thoſe once renowned empires are full of inſtruction, as were the groves of Lyceum or the ſchool of Plato.

2. Let Greece then be the ſubject of a moment's reflection. When liberty flee 22 from the gloom of Egypt, ſhe ſeek 22 out and ſettle 22 at infant Greece—there diſſeminate 22 the ſeeds of greatneſs—there lay 22 the ground work of republican glory. Simplicity of manners, piety to the gods, generoſity and courage were her earlieſt character. " Human nature ſhoot 22 wild and free."

3. Penetrated with a ſpirit of induſtry, her ſons ſcarcely know 22 relaxation ? even their ſports were heroic. Hence that elevated independent ſoul, that contempt of danger, that laudable bias to their country and its manners. Upon the banks of Eurota flouriſh 22 her principal ſtate. Frugality of living and an avarice of time were among the riches of Lacedæmon. Her maxims draw 59 from nature, and one was, " that nothing which bear 22 the name of Greek bear 59 for ſlavery."

4. From this idea flow 22 an aſſiſtance to her ſiſter ſtates. From a like idea in her ſiſter ſtates, that friendſhip return 59 in grateful meaſure. This, if it continue 47 form 43 the link of empire, the charm that unite 43 and make 43 Greece invulnerable. While it laſt 22, the joint efforts of her ſtates render

22 her

z her a name and a praiſe thro the whole earth. [illegible] here, was it not for the ſake of a leſſon to my country, I not only drop 15 my eulogium of Greece, but draw 15 an impervious veil over her remaining hiſtory.

5. The tenfold luſter of Greece, at this day blaze 39 to heaven if the union of her ſtates hold 61 more ſacred. But that union of her ſtates, that cement of her exiſtence, once impaired, the fury of civil diſcord blow 5 her accurſed clarion. Thoſe ſtates which lately ſtand 22 in mighty concert, invincible, now breathe mutual jealouſy and fall piece-meal a prey to the common enemy. Attic wiſdom, Theban hardihood, Spartan valor not combine 35 to ſave her.

6. That very army, which Greece breed 47 and nouriſh 47 to reduce the oriental pride turn 58 vulture upon her own vitals—a parricide, the faction of a tyrant. Behold the great, the godlike Greece, with all her battlements and tower about her, borne headlong from her giddy height—the ſhame, the pity of the world!

7. In a free government, every citizen is a ſoldier. When his liberty invade 58, he reſent 5 the violence, as an attack on his life. Hence in free ſtates, there is no ſuch thing as a perpetual ſtanding army. Mercenary troops are the inſtruments of tyranny, and ſooner or later entail 10 miſery and ſervitude on the nations where they employ 58.

8. On the other hand, behold a brave yeomanry, all ſinew and ſoul, who, having marched forth and defended their families and altars, return 6 in peace to till the fields their own arms reſcue 25. Such were the troops, who, led on by the patriot Warren, give 22 the firſt home blow to our enemies. Such were the troops, who fired by Gates, in the northern woods, almoſt decide 22 the fate of nations.

9. Such were the troops who, under the great and amiable Lincoln, ſuſtain 22 a ſiege in circumſtances that rank him and them with the captains and ſoldiers of antiquity. Such we truſt, were the troops, who, headed indeed by the gallant and judicious Morgan, vanquiſh 22 a choſen veteran band, long dedicated to Mars and diſciplined in blood. And ſuch we doubt not, were the troops who drive 22 the Britiſh legions from the Jerſies, and ever ſince preſerve 25 their own country, under the conduct of that ſuperior man who combine 5 in quality the unſhaken conſtancy of Cato, the triumphant de-

lay

[illegible], and on occaſi[illegible] the enterpriſing ſpirit of Hannibal.

10. Let juſtice be done to our country—let juſtice be don
to our great Leader ; and, as the only means under heaven o
our ſalvation, let his army be reinforced. This grand det
over, we once more adopt 49 an enthuſiaſm, ſublime in itſelf
but ſtill more ſo as coming from the lips of a firſt patriot
I have a moſt amimating confidence that the preſent nobl
ſtruggle for liberty terminate 49 glorioufly for America.

Extracts from an Oration delivered at Boſton, March 5
1781, by the Hon. Thomas Dawes, jun. Eſq.

BRITISH 19 AU 74 MUSEUM

END *of the* SECOND PART.

Abigal Heardsbo

Sudbury Dec: 8th 179